Grade 6 English First Additional Language teachers' perceived preparedness for pedagogical content knowledge in writing education

by

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Supervised by Professor Christa van der Walt

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis is my own work. I have not previously submitted it in its entirety, or in part at any university for a degree.

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December 2017

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Abstract

This thesis set out to determine the perceived preparedness of English Additional Language teachers for pedagogical content knowledge, specifically regarding the teaching of writing in the intermediate phase. Key theoretical resources for the study were Lee Shulman, with particular focus on pedagogical content knowledge, and scholars who elaborated on his work. Data for the study were collected by using a mixed-methods approach: firstly, Shulman's work was used as a lens for a detailed document analysis of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) document to determine specific pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) terminology that teachers should be prepared for in order to teach writing effectively. A survey, primarily consisting of closed-ended Likert scale questions, was drafted upon the data from the document analysis and administered to teachers in the Western Cape in order to obtain deeper insight into how prepared they felt to teach the writing curriculum. Open-ended questions provided useful data to triangulate other data sets and also enriched the inquiry into the phenomenon.

This study found substantial evidence indicating that there is a big difference between what teachers do know about the teaching of writing and what they, according to the curriculum document, should know. The CAPS is clear in emphasising particular concepts, strategies and everyday terminology to teach writing, and it follows that teachers should at least be prepared for the minimum requirements prescribed by the curriculum.

Teachers' lack of confidence was manifested particularly in the teaching of academic (formal) writing, transactional texts and the initial phase of the writing process. Many teachers felt confident developing the final draft of the writing task, but initiating the writing process – developing students' ability to write the first draft, or to design and structure the task according to its formality and purpose – was an area in which teachers felt unprepared. There is evidence that teachers do not feel 100% confident to teach any of the 29 prescribed writing genres well. A significant pattern that emerged was that teachers felt more confident in teaching informal writing as opposed to transactional texts, which tend to be formal in professional contexts.

This information is valuable, not only for future researchers, but also for stakeholders in South African education concerning the current level of preparedness of English First Additional language teachers in the intermediate phase. This study does not merely aim to identify a problem, but rather offers an indication of where and how teacher quality could be improved.

Opsomming

Hierdie tesis het gepoog om die waargenome voorbereidheid van Engels Addisionele Taal onderwysers, met spesifieke betrekking tot die onderrig van skryfvaardighede in die intermediêre fase, vas te stel. Die teoretiese bronne waarop die studie gekonsentreer het, was die werk van Lee Shulman, met spesifieke fokus op pedagogiese inhoudskennis, asook kundiges wat sy werk uitgebrei het. Data vir die studie is versamel deur gebruik te maak van die gemengde metodes benadering. Eerstens is Shulman se teorie as ‘n lens vir ‘n gedetaileerde dokument-analise van die Kurrikulum en Assesseringsbeleidsverklaring (KABV) vir die onderrig van Engels Addisionele Taal in die intermediêre fase gebruik om die terminologie vir die spesifieke pedagogiese inhoudskennis te bepaal waarvoor onderwysers voorbereid moet wees om skryfvaardighede suksesvol te onderrig. ‘n Opname wat hoofsaaklik uit Likert-skaal vrae bestaan het, is uit die data van die dokument-analise saamgestel en aan onderwysers in die Wes-Kaap voorsien om dieper insig te verkry oor hoe voorbereid hulle vir die onderrig van die skryfkurrikulum voel. Oop-eindevrae het waardevolle data vir triangulasie met ander datastelle verskaf, wat die ondersoek na die verskynsel verryk het.

Die bevindinge van hierdie studie dui daarop dat daar ‘n groot verskil is tussen wat onderwysers wel oor die onderrig van skryfvaardighede weet en wat hulle, volgens die kurrikulum, veronderstel is om te weet. Die KABV plaas klem op sekere konsepte, strategieë en algemene terminologie vir die onderrig van skryfvaardighede, en onderwysers moet vervolgens ten minste vir die minimum vereistes van die kurrikulum voorbereid wees.

Onderwysers se tekort aan selfvertroue het veral in die onderrig van akademiese (formele) en transaksionele skryfwerk, asook in die aanvangsfase van die skryfproses gemanifesteer. Baie onderwysers voel wel vertroud met die ontwikkeling van die finale weergawe van die skryfproses, maar die onderrig van die aanvangsfase van die skryfproses – om leerders se skryfvermoë in die eerste weergawe te ontwikkel, of om ‘n skryftaak volgens ‘n spesifieke formaat en doel te ontwerp en te struktureer – is ‘n area waarvoor onderwysers onvoorbereid voel. Daar is bewyse dat onderwysers nie 100% voorbereid voel om enige van die 29 voorgeskrewe skryfgenres suksesvol te onderrig nie. ‘n Beduidende patroon wat opgemerk is, het getoon dat onderwysers meer voorbereid voel vir die onderrig van informele skryfwerk in teenstelling met transaksionele skryfwerk wat neig om formeel in professionele kontekste te wees.

Hierdie inligting is waardevol, nie net vir navorsers nie, maar ook vir belanghebbendes in Suid-Afrikaanse opvoedkunde met betrekking tot die huidige vlak van voorbereidheid van

onderwysers wat Engels Addisionele Taal in die intermediêre fase onderrig. Hierdie studie wys nie bloot ‘n probleem uit nie, maar bied eerder ‘n aanduiding vir waar en hoe onderwysergehalte verbeter kan word.

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List of Abbreviations

ANA	Annual National Assessment
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CDE	Centre for Development and Enterprise
DBE	Department of Basic Education
EFAL	English First Additional Language
EFL	English First Language
KWIC	Key-word-in-context
NEEDU	National Education Evaluation and Development Unit
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NSC	National Senior Certificate
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
PCKg	Pedagogical content knowing
REQV	Relative Education Qualification Value
VCOP	Vocabulary, Connectives, Openers and Punctuation
WCED	Western Cape Education Department

Chapter 1: Introduction

As a teacher of English First Additional Language in the intermediate phase, I have experienced a sense of negativity among teachers in respect of teaching all of the content and skills prescribed in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for language education. From conversations with my colleagues, I noted that teachers feel overwhelmed by the 29 prescribed writing genres to be taught within the school year and that they consequently neglect some valuable learning opportunities just to "get the work done". In the context of a process approach to writing, I started wondering whether teachers even feel prepared in terms of the necessary knowledge and skills needed for delivering the curriculum effectively, and if that also was not a contributing factor to their attitude toward language teaching. I was interested in investigating whether teachers feel fully prepared for all the prescribed concepts to be dealt with in the academic year, regardless of whether they would have an adequate amount of time to do so. The aim of this study was to investigate the perceived preparedness of teachers of English First Additional language in the intermediate phase in terms of the pedagogical content knowledge needed to teach writing effectively.

1.1 Rationale

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was introduced in 2013 as an adjustment to *what* we teach (content) and to a limited extent to *how* we teach (teaching methods). Although the CAPS replaced the assessment standards of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), the content is still based on the NCS. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) further explains that the only major difference in curriculum implementation is that terms like Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards are no longer used – instead the CAPS documents specify the specific content (knowledge and skills) that must be mastered (DBE, 2011b). In other words, the curriculum has reversed changes that have been implemented since 1997 – this time back from outcomes-based education to content-based education. The CAPS requires specific subject matter knowledge for teaching for successful implementation. Seeing that learners often have preconceptions and misconceptions regarding the world around them, teachers need knowledge of strategies to be "fruitful in reorganizing the understanding of learners, because those learners are unlikely to appear before them as blank slates" (Shulman, 1986b:10). Teachers need to understand the content as well as to have mastered the necessary skill-set to facilitate the curriculum effectively. Yet, if statistics

regarding the level of qualifications of South African teachers are reviewed, their competency to do this in terms of content and mastering of specific skills is brought into question.

As recorded by the Department of Basic Education, the 2007 *National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa* set the minimum entry level for all new teachers joining the teaching profession at a relative education qualification value (REQV) of level 14 (DBE, 2007:22-23). The two recognised pathways to achieve the REQV 14 level are: 1) the four-year professional Bachelor of Education degree or 2) a three-year junior degree followed by the year's study for a post-graduate certificate (RSA, 2007:13-14). According to a study by the Human Sciences Research Council, less than half (47,9%), that is 171 976 of 359 260 South African teachers had an REQV 14 qualification in 2004 (HSRC, 2008:5). That means that more than half of South Africa's teachers had not received adequate training to teach in 2004 and therefore had, and probably still have, a lack in "…depth of knowledge in the subject, or skills in teaching it as a subject, or both" (Education Commission, 1995:49), or, as Shulman conceptualises it, these teachers would lack the "…cognitive understanding of subject matter content and the relationships between such understanding and the instruction [they] provide for students" (Shulman, 1986a:25).

Another factor to consider when dealing with teachers' cognitive understanding is change in the curriculum. Even in schools with well-qualified teachers (as many Western Cape Schools probably have), or with experienced teachers, the potential for a gap between what teachers know and what knowledge the new curriculum requires is created when a curriculum is changed. There could also be a gap between what different teacher training institutions and school backgrounds have equipped qualified teachers with and what the new curriculum requires. Furthermore, older and experienced teachers could experience the challenge of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) shifting dramatically over time. This suggests that the educational system is not simply going back to the old curriculum content (pre-1997) but it is presumed some things have changed, such as the need for digital writing formats which did not exist previously.

Against this background, it is understood that a teacher, by definition, knows content that learners are yet to comprehend. The fundamental task of the teachers is to make new knowledge comprehensible as teaching "begins with a teacher's understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught" (Shulman, 1986a:6). Numerous researchers have proven that teachers' knowledge and skills affect their interaction in the classroom (Ball & McDiarmid, 1990; Sowder, Philipp, Armstrong & Schappelle, 1998). In other words, there is a

definite correlation between what teachers know and how they teach it and learners' cognitive development.

Lee Shulman (1986a) coined the term "pedagogical content knowledge" as the amalgamation of what teachers know (subject matter) and the skills they develop to teach it effectively (pedagogical knowledge), typified as the "overarching knowledge base" that comprises all the others (Turner-Bisset, 1999:47). He introduced it as a specific category of knowledge "which goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching" (Shulman, 1986a:9) and it has been seen as an essential component of effective teaching ever since (Abell, 2007; Baumert et al., 2010; Park & Oliver, 2008). The heart of PCK is that, in addition to teachers' subject matter (content) knowledge and their general knowledge of instructional methods (pedagogical knowledge), pedagogical content knowledge "represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (Shulman, 1987a:8).

PCK was originally developed in the context of mathematics and science, but, recently, "concerns about the subject-matter knowledge of L2 teachers…have grown, especially in relation to the teaching of English" (Andrews, 2003:84). A concern arising from this statement could be that the competency of teachers in terms of PCK is not necessarily sufficient to develop standards of excellence to teach English in such a manner that the learner is able to understand and use all aspects of the language effectively. This is further underscored by the fact that "…the burgeoning demand for English worldwide has led to a demand for teachers that can be met in the short term only by employing in that role significant numbers of people who lack the appropriate qualifications" (Andrews, 2003:84). Moreover, in considering the South African Annual National Assessment (ANA) results for grade 6 learners, a concern emerges as it shows that the national average percentage mark for English First Additional Language (FAL) was a mere 46% (DBE, 2013:32). These results call for further inquiry into grade 6 teaching in order to improve English FAL acquisition.

In view of problems with the development of literacy and writing proficiency in particular (see DBE, 2013; Hendriks, 2006; Roonghairan, 2007; Sriyon, 2009), this study was focused on writing as a vital component of literacy development. In a study concerning writing development in South African schools, Sailors, Hoffman and Matthee (2007) found, that most teachers experience writing instruction as a struggle. The CAPS regards writing as one of the four major strands to be developed in English FAL for grade 6.

Whereas reading has received a great deal of attention from researchers in the field of language and literacy teaching, writing appears to be a relatively neglected area of literacy research (Julius, 2013:2). Research conducted by Hoadley (2010) and the National Education Evaluation and Development unit (NEEDU, 2012), has shown that writing is particularly neglected in South Africa because "not only is children's writing weak, but there is much less research done on writing than on reading" (Julius, 2013:2). Sailors et al (2007:385) state that "the conception of literacy [is] focused on reading and not on writing" and recommend that writing development should acquire far greater attention. Furthermore, according to Limbrick, Buchanan, Goodwin and Schwarcz (2010:901-902), it is clear that "little empirical data … exists on teachers' content [knowledge] and pedagogical content knowledge in relation to writing outcomes". In the light of my own observations and these researchers' concern for the teaching of writing, this study seemed to be a timely and important investigation.

1.2 Research question

The curriculum for English FAL in the intermediate phase as presented in the CAPS clearly states that, in terms of writing, the aim is "to produce competent, versatile writers who will be able to use their skills to develop and present appropriate written, visual and multi-media texts for a variety of purposes" (DBE, 2011a:16) and the first additional language teacher therefore will need to provide "careful support and guidance to develop the skills of producing sustained written texts" in the classroom (DBE, 2011a:16).

Grounded in the body of research on the topic, this study aimed to answer the main question:

- How do English FAL teachers in the intermediate phase perceive their preparedness to develop process writing competence (as described in the CAPS) in terms of the required PCK?

In order to understand the main question, the following subsidiary question was formulated:

- What PCK is needed to teach process writing as prescribed in the CAPS document?

1.3 Research approach and design

The mixed-methods research design was followed for this study. Following a literature study involving PCK for writing, analysis of curriculum documents was the next logical step before designing a survey. The survey was conducted in the form of a questionnaire to determine how teachers perceived the preparedness of their PCK for writing development. Inductive reasoning was imposed on the data gathered by means of the survey during data analysis and interpretation.

As teachers were the participants in the research, ethical considerations of the study were dealt with in collaboration with the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) and Stellenbosch University, the instances from which permission was requested to conduct the research involving teachers.

The study aimed to involve as many English FAL teachers in the Western Cape as possible. The sampling took into account an appropriate range of representative socio-economic statuses.

Qualitative data were obtained through open-ended questions at the end of the questionnaire. This was aimed at deepening the understanding of the teachers' perceived preparedness and gave the inquiry a greater sense of balance and perspective.

The questionnaire was based on the Likert model. Items formulated required teachers to react and indicate the degree to which they agreed with statements or disagreed. The information on which questions were based, were the requirements of the CAPS document to which every English FAL teacher in government schools has to adhere.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This study rests on the premise that teachers, in order to be successful teachers of writing, should have thorough knowledge of all the knowledge bases that constitute writing pedagogy, therefore well-developed pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). The quality of teachers' PCK could explain their success as teachers of writing and be useful towards informing and guiding future practice. This chapter has introduced the rationale for, and questions of the thesis.

Chapter 2 presents a review of literature that discusses the concept of PCK by describing the various knowledge bases that contribute to successful teaching. It places emphasis on Shulman's conceptualisation of the concept and explores the different views of scholars in the

field. An argument for the importance of writing education is presented and different approaches to teaching writing are explored. Finally, the representation of writing in the CAPS curriculum is described.

Chapter 3 describes the research design and discusses methodological issues arising from the study. The study takes the form of a document analysis of the CAPS curriculum in terms of writing education, identifying PCK terminology. This information formed the basis of the questionnaire in the survey that aimed to determine the perceived preparedness of teachers for the PCK terminology described in the CAP Statement.

In Chapter 4, an analysis is given of the data derived from the survey. First, the quantitative data produced by the major part of the questionnaire, focused on the degree to which teachers feel prepared for the PCK terminology in question. Then, the qualitative data produced by the open-ended questions were analysed and used to triangulate the results.

The final chapter provides an overview of this thesis, describes the limitations of the study, and draws conclusions from the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The state of South African education has become a heated topic of discussion in various fields in modern society. Evidence of the high rate of failure in the matriculation examination and a high dropout and grade repetition rate throughout schooling is evidence of the fact that it is an issue in dire need of attention. In addition to the notable failure rates, results from research conducted by the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE) reported in *South Africa's Education Crisis: The quality of education in South Africa 1994-2011* (Spaull, 2013), concur that the South African schooling system faces a serious problem. The report shows that South Africa not only has the "worst education system of all middle-income countries that participate in cross-national assessments of educational achievement", but also that we perform "worse than many low-income African countries" (Spaull, 2013:3). It argues, moreover, that the annually-reported statistics from the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination in Grade 12 are particularly misleading since they do not take into account those learners who never make it to Grade 12: "Of 100 pupils that start school, only 50 will make it to Grade 12, 40 will pass, and only 12 will qualify for university" (Spaull, 2013:3). Here it is necessary to note that not all learners who qualify for university will necessarily end up going to university, for various reasons such as a lack of financial aid or personal responsibilities to earn an income for their families. Moreover, of the possible 12% who will end up going to university, many students drop out from their course, failing to complete tertiary education and training. This sketches a situation of great concern, especially considering that at least 88% of South African youth consequently will need to survive in a challenging economy without having received tertiary education. Furthermore, the CDE report (Spaull, 2013:6) shows that, for disadvantaged learners, the gaps between what they should know and what they do know grow over time. This means that learners, as time goes on, fall further and further behind, leading to a situation in high school in which remediation is almost impossible since these learning gaps have been left unaddressed for too long. However, the Department of Basic Education, according to annual reports (DBE, 2012; DBE, 2013), seems positive about the state of South African schooling because of recent improvements in student outcomes, as well as some important policy innovations in progress such as text books prescribed by the DBE in all primary schools, but the picture that emerges time and again remains both dire and consistent, with Spaull (2013:3) indicating:

> however one chooses to measure learner performance, and at whichever grade one chooses to test, the vast majority of South African pupils are significantly below where they should be in terms of the curriculum, and more generally, have not reached a host of normal numeracy and literacy milestones.

In other words, despite the fact that prescribed books have been introduced and some improvements are evident in learners' marks, the major issue regarding the current state of South African education is still not effectively addressed.

2.2 Teacher quality in South Africa

Educators and researchers have debated which school variables have the biggest influence on student achievement for many years. Some research has suggested that "schools bring little influence to bear upon a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context" (Coleman et al., 1966:325; Jencks et al., 1972). Other evidence suggests that factors like class size (Glass. Cahen, Smith & Filby, 1982; Mosteller, 1995), teacher qualifications (Ferguson, 1991), school size (Monk & Haller, 1993), and other school variables may play an important role in what students learn. Taking into account the fact that two variables will always be present, firstly, the one who understands what is to be learned and how it is to be taught, the teacher and, secondly, the learner, who is acquiring knowledge, it follows that the teacher should have a significant impact on student achievement. Teachers are, and have always been, the primary locus of schooling systems around the world (Spaull, 2013:24) and therefore there must be some correlation between the quality of the teacher and student outcome. Studies have suggested that teachers play the central role around which the extensive range of educational processes revolves (Calderhead, 1996), which means that, if teachers are central to any consideration of schools, it would be possible to influence and improve the education system when attention is given primarily to factors determining the quality of teachers.

Numerous researchers have consequently proven that teachers' knowledge and skills affect their interaction in the classroom and learner outcomes (Ball & McDiarmid, 1988; Sowder et al. 1998). Research such as that done by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2005:2) concludes that,

> second only to pupil background factors (which are largely beyond the control of education policy), factors to do with teachers and teaching are the most important

> influences on pupil learning. In particular, the broad consensus is that teacher quality is the single most important school variable influencing pupil achievement.

Barber and Mourshed (2007:12) furthermore conclude that "the available evidence suggests that the main driver of the variation in pupil learning at school is the quality of the teachers", and thus that "the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers" (p. 41). If recent statistics on student achievement in South Africa causes a situation of great concern, it makes sense that the biggest focus in addressing the problem should be on the primary influence on student achievement: the quality of the teacher.

When aiming to approach the matter of improving teacher quality in South Africa, the current level of quality needs to be established as a point of departure. Here statistics reveal a troublesome picture: according to a survey done in 2004, more than half of South Africa's teachers had not received adequate training (HSRC, 2008:5) and, if no training and development have been implemented since, will still have a lack in "…depth of knowledge in the subject, or skills in teaching it as a subject, or both" (Education Commission, 1995:49). This means that more than half of our teachers cannot make complex content comprehensible to learners and therefore cannot educate a learner on his or her specific level in order to achieve cognitive development. Literature on the content knowledge of South African teachers reveals that many have not mastered the curricula they are expected to teach (Fleisch, 2008:123; Spaull, 2013; Taylor & Moyane, 2004). Moreover, Hungi et al. (2011:13) report that only 32 per cent of South African Grade Six mathematics teachers have desirable levels of mathematics content knowledge. The situation for reading teachers is slightly better with 60 per cent of South African Grade Six reading teachers having desirable levels of reading content knowledge (Spaull, 2013:26). In other words, 68 per cent of Grade Six mathematics teachers cannot master Grade Six mathematics and 40 per cent of Grade Six language teachers cannot read well enough to improve the reading skills of their students. If this is the representation of the average South African teacher, how then can we expect to raise the standard of education when such a large portion of teachers do not meet the desired standard? Perhaps the focus should move away from innovations such as redesigning the curriculum or changing the textbooks, and move more towards the single most important element of the education system – the teacher (Barber & Mourshed, 2007:12; Calderhead, 1996; Spaull, 2013:24; Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999:230). In attempting to improve the situation in South African education, the main issue in need of serious attention should rather be to address the question of what constitutes a high quality teacher in South Africa and how we can improve the necessary knowledge and skills to be as effective as possible. What kind of

knowledge distinguishes the expert from the novice teacher and how can the gap between the two be bridged as soon as possible in a teacher's career?

With these concerns in mind, the next section provides justification for a way to conceptualise the knowledge that teachers need for effective teaching.

2.3 Shifting the focus of teacher education

Lee Shulman, in his article *Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching* (1986b), compares modern teaching to what the teaching profession entailed in the 1800s and explains that "a century ago the defining characteristic of pedagogical accomplishment was knowledge of content" (Shulman, 1986b:8). The phrase "a century ago" may raise concerns because it sounds as if it might not be the case anymore. Does "imparting knowledge to or instructing someone in how to do something" (Teach, 2010:1216) not form the very foundation of the definition of teaching? Shulman's view of teaching sees the teacher as able to understand what needs to be taught and how it is to be taught (Shulman, 1987a:7) – teaching is therefore about making complex concepts and skills comprehensible to learners. In other words,

> the teacher's understanding shifts from being able to comprehend subject matter for themselves, to becoming able to elucidate subject matter in new ways, reorganise and partition it, clothe it in activities and emotions, in metaphors and exercises, and in examples and demonstrations, so that it can be grasped by students. (Shulman, 1987a:13)

By this logic, it would be profitable for research in education to characterise and continually develop the knowledge bases that are deemed most important for effective teachers in education. Yet Shulman remarks that the emphasis of modern education is on "how teachers manage their classrooms, organise activities, allocate time and turns, structure assignments, ascribe praise and blame, formulate the levels of their questions, plan lessons, and judge general student understanding" (Shulman, 1986b:8). But if teaching begins with the teacher's understanding of knowledge, why is the main emphasis of modern education on areas such as classroom management, organising activities, time allocation and lesson plans when it should be on cognitive understanding and application? There seems to be an imbalance between the administrative, pedagogical and cognitive roles a teacher has to fulfil and the demands of students' cognitive development. From the perspectives of teacher development and teacher education, it is clear that fundamental questions of what it constitutes to be a

capable and effective teacher are ignored – questions that would aim to explore where teacher explanations come from, how teachers decide what to teach, how to represent it, how to question students about it and how to deal with problems of misunderstanding.

In my own career as a primary school teacher, I have experienced that a young teacher (especially in primary schools) will often be expected to teach a subject that he or she has never studied. The unfortunate reality is that, measured by the requirements of modern education as observed by Shulman (1986b), he or she will probably pass as an adequate teacher – the classroom will be well managed, time will be allocated efficiently, activities will be organised and lesson plans would be presented according to the book – yet his or her students' cognitive abilities would probably not be stimulated sufficiently because he or she would not have the in-depth knowledge base of that specific subject, especially with regard to content knowledge. Here content knowledge refers to the amount and organisation of knowledge in the mind of the teacher (Shulman, 1986a:9; 1987a:9) with regard to the subject. For teachers of English First Language (EFL), Roberts (1998:105) points out that having content knowledge means that teachers show knowledge of the systems of the target language and competence in it. This means that teachers should have declarative knowledge of the language (Bailey, Curtis & Nunan, 2001:23; Day, 1990:43), i.e. knowledge about English grammar and phonetics, for instance, and be simultaneously proficient and confident users of it as they will become language models for their learners (Barnes, 2002:199). This principle would not only apply to EFL teachers, but could be generalised to the teaching of any subject – teachers who do not themselves know a subject well are not likely to have the knowledge they need to help students learn and comprehend this content. Moreover, Williamson McDiarmid and Clevenger-Bright (2008:141) concur that "the better teachers know the landscape of the subject matter they teach, the better able they are to find productive points of access for different pupils". With regard to South African education, the CDC report unfortunately concurs that there is "a clear indication that teacher content knowledge is seriously lacking" (Spaull, 2013:25), therefore, if the average South African teacher does not know the landscape of the subject matter, he or she cannot expect to teach the subject effectively or achieve optimal cognitive development with the learners.

2.4 The knowledge base for effective teaching

In the previous section, the necessity of sufficient and deep knowledge of a subject is presented as indispensable for teachers. In addition to content knowledge, Shulman (1986b:8) remarks that “mere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill”. The argument he makes is that having profound knowledge about a subject does not make someone an expert teacher and thus that mere knowledge of content “is necessary, but not sufficient for effective teaching” (Abell, 2007:1120). For Shulman, there are two key elements in the structure of his argument: firstly, an effective teacher has knowledge of subject matter, on the one hand, and, secondly, displays an understanding of specific learning difficulties and student conceptions, on the other. The teacher has to display the capacity to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by students (Shulman, 1987a:15). A special kind of knowledge is required – a knowledge encompassing all other knowledge a teacher needs, to transform subject-matter knowledge so that it can be used effectively and flexibly in the communication process between teachers and learners during classroom practice.

In order to transform difficult subject-matter knowledge in such a way that it would be comprehensible to learners, Shulman proposes that the effective teacher also needs to display a profound knowledge of various categories of knowledge within the teaching realm (Shulman, 1987a:8). Proficiency in all of these categories would then form the knowledge base that the effective teacher can use as main source in promotion of learner comprehension. At minimum, Shulman (1987a:8) includes an in-depth knowledge of the following categories as paramount for effective teaching:

- content knowledge (also referred to as subject-matter knowledge);
- general pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation that appear to transcend subject matter;
- curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools of the trade” for teachers;
- pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding;
- knowledge of learners and their characteristics;

- knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures; and
- knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds

Among these categories, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is of special interest because it identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. Shulman (1987a:8) argues:

> it represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organised, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction and therefore it is most likely to distinguish the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue.

From this statement it would seem that PCK is paramount to effective teaching and that an enhancement in a teacher's PCK would result in improvement of teacher quality in South Africa and student outcome. The concept of PCK is discussed in greater depth next.

2.5 Pedagogical content knowledge

In 1986, Lee Shulman introduced the concept of PCK as a unique body of knowledge for teaching – a "particular form of content knowledge that embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability" (Shulman, 1986a:9). As stated in the previous section, it is seen as the amalgamation of two key elements: what teachers know (subject matter) and the skills they develop to reach optimal cognitive development in their students (pedagogical knowledge). PCK acknowledges the importance of the transformation of subject matter knowledge as it "goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching" (Shulman, 1986a:9).

Many researchers concur with Shulman (1986, 1987) and have directed increased attention to teachers' knowledge and how it is developed, and they have identified the same categories to constitute the knowledge base for effective teaching (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Park & Oliver, 2007; Turner-Bisset, 1999). The main argument to infer from these researchers is that the effective teacher needs to be well-equipped with various knowledge bases to serve as the source on which teaching in the classroom could be based. Park and Oliver (2007:3) remark that, while researchers have differed regarding their characterisation

of the relationship between various sub-domains of teacher knowledge, four commonalities have consistently appeared: pedagogical knowledge, subject matter knowledge, PCK, and knowledge of context. Figure 2.1 provides an illustrative overview of the four commonalities that can act as a kind of mental map for understanding the complexity of teachers' professional knowledge. Pedagogical content knowledge is therefore introduced as a knowledge base which includes four components of understanding – pedagogy, subject matter, students and the environmental context (Cochran, DeRuiter & King, 1993). As can be seen in Figure 2.1, it is important to note that all knowledge bases are constantly influenced and shaped by one another. This is due to their interrelated and dynamic nature of “pedagogical content knowing” (Cochran et al., 1993). In view of this model, PCK is “both an external and internal construct, as it is constituted by what a teacher knows, what a teacher does, and the reasons for the teacher’s actions” (Baxter & Lederman, 1999:158). Hence, PCK encompasses both teachers’ understanding and their actions in the classroom.

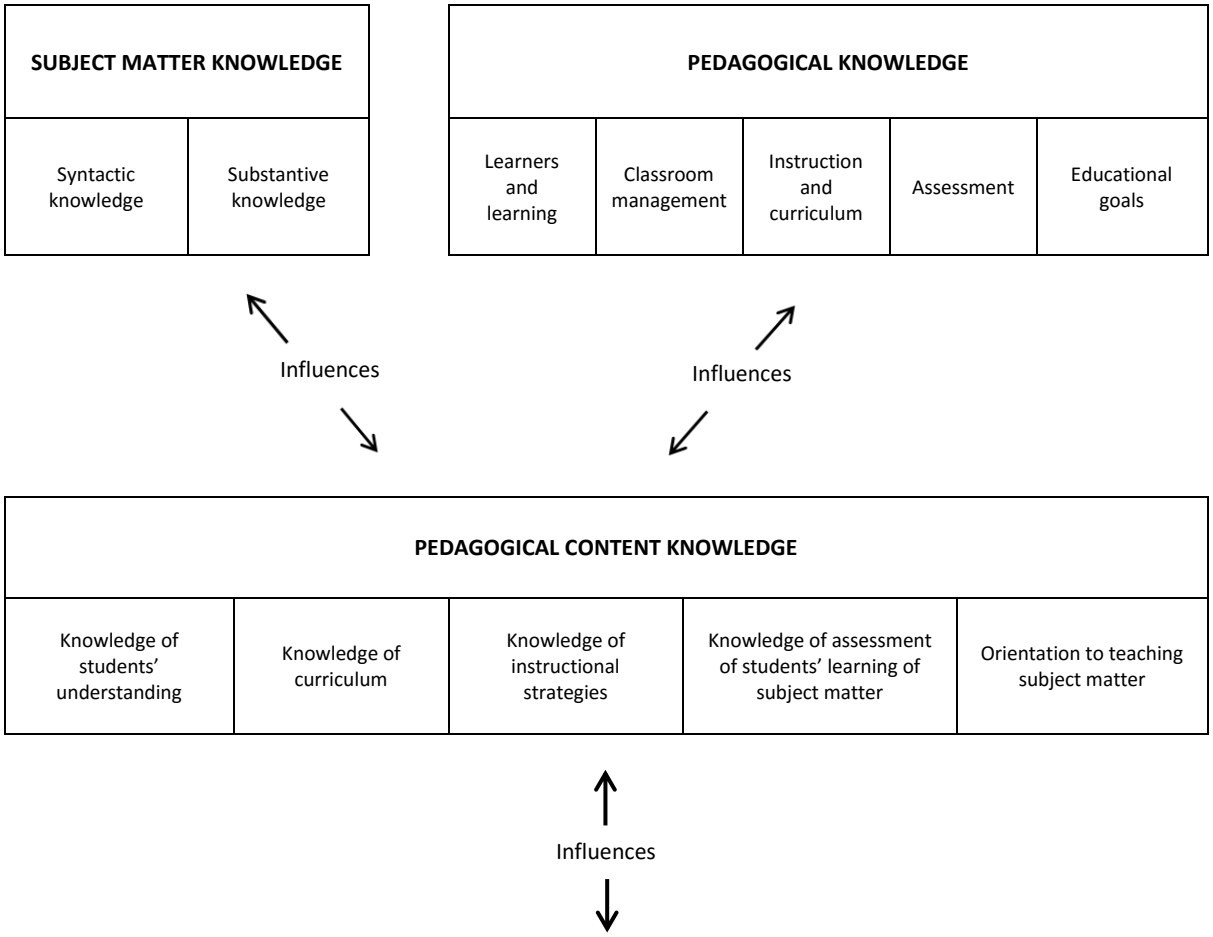


Figure 2.1: Knowledge bases for teaching (Park & Oliver, 2007:3)

Criticism of PCK might involve why it is essential for a teacher to adapt subject matter knowledge for pedagogical purposes. A teacher certainly ought to know content that learners are yet to comprehend, so why is it necessary to transform subject matter at all? The answer lies in Shulman's argument (1986, 1987) that if one is to think properly about content knowledge, merely understanding content and teaching the same content so that it can be understood by others are two very different skills to be mastered. Teaching requires "going beyond knowledge of the facts or concepts of a domain" (Shulman, 1986a:10). Shulman argues that teachers must not only be capable of defining for students the accepted truths in a domain, but they must also be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted, why it is worth knowing, and how it relates to other propositions, both within the discipline and without, both in theory and in practice. For example, within the endeavour of

teaching poetry, the English teacher should have thorough knowledge of particular authors and their work, about literary genres and styles, but, moreover, should also understand alternative theories of interpretations and criticism of the specific poem and genre. This correlates with Shulman's remark (1986a:10) that "learners are unlikely to appear before them as blank slates" and therefore the teacher should know so much more than the scholar, having an understanding not only of the subject matter, but also of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: "the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons" (Shulman, 1986a:9). Ball and McDiarmid (1989:3) agree, stating that "this kind of understanding encompasses an understanding of the intellectual fabric and essence of the subject matter itself." With regard to the teaching of poetry for example, the teacher has to identify those preconceptions that could explain the learner's reasoning about certain themes in the poem. "If those preconceptions are misconceptions, the teacher needs knowledge about [what is] most likely to be fruitful in reorganising the understanding of learners" (Shulman, 1986a:9) – this would include knowledge that could explain why the learner's reasoning is incorrect and strategies for guiding the learner in the desired direction. Moreover, I, as a teacher, have been confronted numerous times with learners questioning the very reason for learning a topic or subject because they do not understand its applicability to their field of interest or to everyday life. Here, mere subject knowledge will not suffice – explaining why the particular proposition is worth knowing goes beyond subject matter itself to the capacity of transforming subject matter knowledge and presenting it as "subject matter knowledge for teaching" (Shulman, 1986a:9). Ball and McDiarmid (1989:3) argue that a history teacher needs detailed knowledge about events and people of the past but must also understand what history is: the nature of historical knowledge and what it means to find out or know something about the past. In other words, the expert teacher does not only need to understand the subject matter itself, but must also understand why it is worth learning and how it applies to everyday life. Scheffier (1973:89) writes that this kind of subject matter understanding "strengthens the teacher's powers and, in so doing, heightens the possibilities of his art".

However, Turner-Bisset (1999:43) remarks that the notion of transforming subject matter to accord with its teachability also has inherent difficulties. She argues that the central concern of this criticism is whether or not it is possible in practice to make a clear distinction between subject knowledge and pedagogic content knowledge, and hence to argue that pedagogical content knowledge has a distinctive contribution to make to the training of teachers. This critique is influenced by McEwan and Bull's argument (1991:318) that Shulman's distinction between content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge is not justifiable as "all content knowledge, whether held by scholars or teachers, has a pedagogical dimension" –

they oppose Shulman's idea to conflate content and pedagogy and argue that it cannot be separated from each other (McEwan & Bull, 1991:332):

> [T]here is no such thing as pure scholarship, devoid of pedagogy… The scholar is no scholar who does not engage an audience for the purposes of edifying its members… To understand a new idea is not merely to add to the existing stock; it is also to grasp hold of its heuristic power – its power to teach. Explanations are not only of something; they are also always for someone.

In addition, Bennett and Turner-Bisset (1993) analysed classroom discourse to find evidence of content knowledge and concluded that it was indeed impossible to distinguish between content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. In other words, in the act of teaching, all knowledge is presented pedagogically in some way. Marks (1990:8) also critiqued the notion and highlighted the ambiguities in PCK: "Because PCK derives from other types of knowledge, determining where one ends and the other begins is difficult. The attempt to classify instances of teacher's knowledge by types proves to be ambiguous." PCK cannot be attained as a knowledge base of its own, but is rather based on the teacher's level of proficiency in all other knowledge categories.

Stones (1992) reiterated Marks's (1990) reservations about the ambiguities inherent in the concept of PCK. He also regretted the way in which it had become a "decontextualized buzz word" and argued that the term was "of little functional help in analysing and practising teaching and could actually be counterproductive by isolating one aspect of pedagogical theory and practice" (Stones, 1992:11). However, Turner-Bisset (1999:43) provides a counter-argument stating that, although Stones's work (1992) "presents a powerful argument, based on a variety of valuable case studies across a range of subjects, for psychopedagogical analysis of teaching, he may be wrongly interpreting pedagogical content knowledge as only one aspect of theory and knowledge for teaching". Turner-Bisset (1999) therefore proposed a model presenting an alternative view of pedagogical content knowledge elaborating on Shulman's knowledge categories for teaching (Shulman, 1987a:8) in which it is clear that many aspects of teaching are included in the concept. On this basis, the critique by Marks (1990:8) that PCK cannot be attained as a knowledge base of its own is indeed relevant. In other words, PCK should not be viewed as the acquisition and testing of a specific knowledge base determining quality teaching, but rather as the conflation of all the other knowledge bases.

2.6 Elaborating the concept of PCK

In addition to Shulman's initial characterisation of PCK, numerous scholars have worked on the concept. Park and Oliver (2007:4) noted that a common way for researchers to elaborate on Shulman's work has been to adopt the two key elements of PCK, content and pedagogy (Shulman, 1986, 1987) and make it applicable to their own field of study, consequently extending the concept by including in PCK some of the categories of knowledge distinct in Shulman's knowledge base for teaching. Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008:392) gave support to scholars such as Geddis, Onslow, Beynon and Oesch (1993), who argued for the idea that PCK is the knowledge that plays a role in transforming subject matter into forms that are more accessible to students. Ball et al. remarked that the claim for pedagogical content knowledge was founded on observations that effective teachers in the Knowledge Growth in Teaching study (Shulman, 1986a) represented key ideas using metaphors, diagrams, and explanations that were at once attuned to students' learning and to the integrity of the subject matter. Research by Grossman (1990), Marks (1990), Wilson (1988) and Wilson, Shulman and Richert (1987) also support this claim. From my personal experience as a Grade Six teacher, I can assert that not all metaphors, diagrams and explanations are in fact attuned to all the students in the classroom and therefore I concur with Ball et al. (2008:392) that "some representations are especially powerful; others, although technically correct, do not open the ideas effectively to learners". Aside from in-depth subject knowledge, it is paramount that the teacher develops a thorough knowledge of his or her students' specific backgrounds and needs in order to present the subject knowledge in a way that meets them on their level for learning. This is particularly important in South Africa where learners from different cultures may need different methods and points of departure.

Pedagogical content knowledge also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult (Shulman, 1986a:9). Shulman argues that the effective teacher has a profound understanding of the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the classroom, because "if those preconceptions are misconceptions, which they so often are, teachers need knowledge of the strategies most likely to be fruitful in reorganising the understanding of learners, because those learners are unlikely to appear before them as blank slates" (Shulman, 1986a:10). In other words, the presentation of the subject is consequently informed by context-specific knowledge of student conceptions. Ball et al. (2008:392) concur with Shulman (1986a) and argue that a focus on conceptions, and in many cases a particular interest in student misconceptions, acknowledges that accounting for how students understand a content domain is a key feature of the work of teaching that content.

PCK, moreover, is composed of knowledge and beliefs about the purposes for teaching particular topics and knowledge of curriculum materials available for teaching (Van Driel, Verloop & De Vos, 1998:675). Grossman (1990:8) states that these ideas:

> …are inherent in Dewey's admonition that teachers must learn to "psychologise" their subject matter for teaching, to rethink disciplinary topics to make them more accessible to students… Teachers must draw upon both their knowledge of subject matter to select appropriate topics and their knowledge of students' prior knowledge and conceptions to formulate appropriate and provocative representations of the content to be learned.

Grossman (1990:5) argues that the heart of PCK consists of four main areas of teacher knowledge as the cornerstones of professional knowledge bases for teaching: "General pedagogical knowledge, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of context". Identifying these areas leads Grossman (1990:5) to identify the following sources from which PCK is generated and developed:

> (a) observation of classes, both as a student and as a student teacher, often leading to tacit and conservative PCK;
> (b) disciplinary education, which may lead to personal preferences for specific purposes or topics;
> (c) specific courses during teacher education, of which the impact is normally unknown; and
> (d) classroom teaching experience.

In addition to Grossman's perception of how PCK is generated, Ball et al. (2008:404) applied the concept of PCK to the teaching of mathematics and developed the concept further. They warn that it should be remembered that "just knowing a subject well may not be sufficient for teaching" and explain that "one need only sit in a classroom for a few minutes to notice that the mathematics that teachers work with in instruction is not the same mathematics taught and learned in college classes". This implies that even though the mathematics student may have the knowledge of advanced mathematics, it seems unlikely that it would satisfy all of the content demands of teaching. This idea leads Ball et al. (2008:389) to develop the idea that the expert teacher has "specialised content knowledge" as he or she needs to know "mathematics in ways useful for, among other things, making mathematical sense of student work and choosing powerful ways of representing the subject so that it is understandable to students" (Ball et al., 2008:404). However, they agree with Shulman's observation (1986a) and argue that the issues with regard to the shift in focus in teacher training from content

knowledge to administrative and pedagogy roles, identified by Shulman and his colleagues more than two decades ago, are key to research on teaching and teacher education. In other words, instead of taking pedagogical content knowledge as given, "there is a need to carefully map it and measure it" (Ball et al., 2008:404).

Van Driel et al. (1998:675) state that other scholars who have elaborated on Shulman's work "adopted the two key elements of PCK" identified by Shulman (1986, 1987): "knowledge of comprehensible representations of subject matter and understanding of content-related learning difficulties." Marks (1990) broadened Shulman's model further by including knowledge of subject matter as well as knowledge of media for instruction in PCK.

In a further refinement of the concept, Cochran et al. (1993:267) argued that PCK should be reconceptualised as pedagogical content *knowing* (PCKg) to acknowledge the "dynamic nature of knowledge development". Their model elaborates on Shulman's view of PCK and reconceptualises it in a much broader way. They define PCKg therefore as "a teacher's integrated understanding of four components of pedagogy, subject matter content, student characteristics, and the environmental context of learning" (Cochran et al., 1993:266). In their conclusion, Van Driel et al. (1998:677) remark that, ideally, "PCKg is generated as a synthesis from the simultaneous development of these four components." The idea of integrating knowledge components agrees with the conceptualisation of PCK by Fernández-Balboa and Stiehl (1995), who argue that PCK is indeed a conflation of five knowledge components that are interweaved and that continuously shape each other. These components are "subject matter, the students, instructional strategies, the teaching context, and one's teaching purposes" (Fernández-Balboa & Stiehl, 1995:293).

Table 2.1 illustrates how different scholars elaborated and expanded on Shulman's (1986, 1987) original concept of PCK since its inception. Park and Oliver's idea (2007:5) was to extend research done by Van Driel et al. (1998) and they summarised different scholars' conceptualisations of PCK in this way. Their model, as can be seen in Table 2.1, conceptualises PCK by identifying the constituent components based on the different beliefs of the specific scholars or the findings from their empirical studies. Park and Oliver (2007:5) noted that the "differences among the scholars occurred with respect to the components they integrate in PCK, and to specific labels or descriptions of these components". However, it is worthwhile to note that most scholars agreed on Shulman's (1986) two key components of PCK: (a) knowledge of instructional strategies incorporating representations of subject matter and responses to specific learning difficulties and (b) student conceptions with respect to that subject matter.

Table 2.1: PCK conceptualised by different scholars

Components of pedagogical content knowledge from different conceptualisations (Parks & Oliver, 2007:5)	**Knowledge of …**								
	Purposes for teaching a subject matter	**Student understanding**	**Curriculum**	**Instructional strategies and representations**	**Media**	**Assessment**	**Subject matter**	**Context**	**Pedagogy**
Shulman (1987)	D	O	D	O			D	D	D
Tamir (1988)		O	O	O		O	D		D
Grossman (1990)	O	O	O	O			D		
Marks (1990)		O		O	O		O		
Smith and Neale (1989)	O	O		O			D		
Cochran et al. (1993)		O		N			O	O	O
Geddis et al. (1993)		O	O	O					
Fernández-Balboa and Stiehl (1995)	O	O		O			O	O	
Magnusson et al. (1999)	O	O	O	O		O			
Hasweh (2005)	O	O	O	O		O	O	O	O
Loughran et al. (2006)	O	O		O			O	O	O

(***D*** *– Author placed this subcategory outside of PCK as a distinct knowledge base for teaching;* ***N*** *– author did not discuss this subcategory explicitly (equivalent to blank but used for emphasis);* ***O*** *– author included this subcategory as a component of PCK.)*

Against this background, it is clear that conceptualising PCK seems challenging as it has different meanings for various scholars. Yet, after examining reviews and analysis of the literature on PCK, I still accept Shulman's (1986a:9) original definition as the comprehensive

working definition of PCK for this study. He defined pedagogical content knowledge as comprising:

> The most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations – in a word, the most useful ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others… Pedagogical content knowledge also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons.

The logic behind the choice of his definition is that it takes the various components already identified by scholars who elaborated on PCK into account. For example, "understanding what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons" (Shulman, 1986a:9) already implies that an effective teacher displays in-depth knowledge of student understanding, as elucidated by all the scholars (Table 2.1). The teacher cannot address a student's preconception (or misconception) if he or she does not display an understanding of his or her students' background and reference framework. Furthermore, for an effective teacher to utilise "the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations" (Shulman, 1986a:9), it is important that the teacher must be able to use the media effectively, as illustrated by Marks (1990). In my own career as a teacher I have found that a teacher's method of teaching must be flexible and sensitive to the needs of particular learners in the classroom. Using technology to enhance the learning experience for the modern child could be a very effective way of making the lesson much more interesting. In other words, Shulman's definition of PCK implies, although not explicitly, that PCK is the "overarching knowledge base" comprising all the others (Turner-Bisset, 1999:47). It seems that most scholars after Shulman have discussed the interpretation of the various components of PCK and how they fit together, rather than fundamentally arguing with the existence of those components. The broadness of his definition is what makes it attractive as it makes it possible for scholars to look to their research to find their own, particular interpretation of PCK.

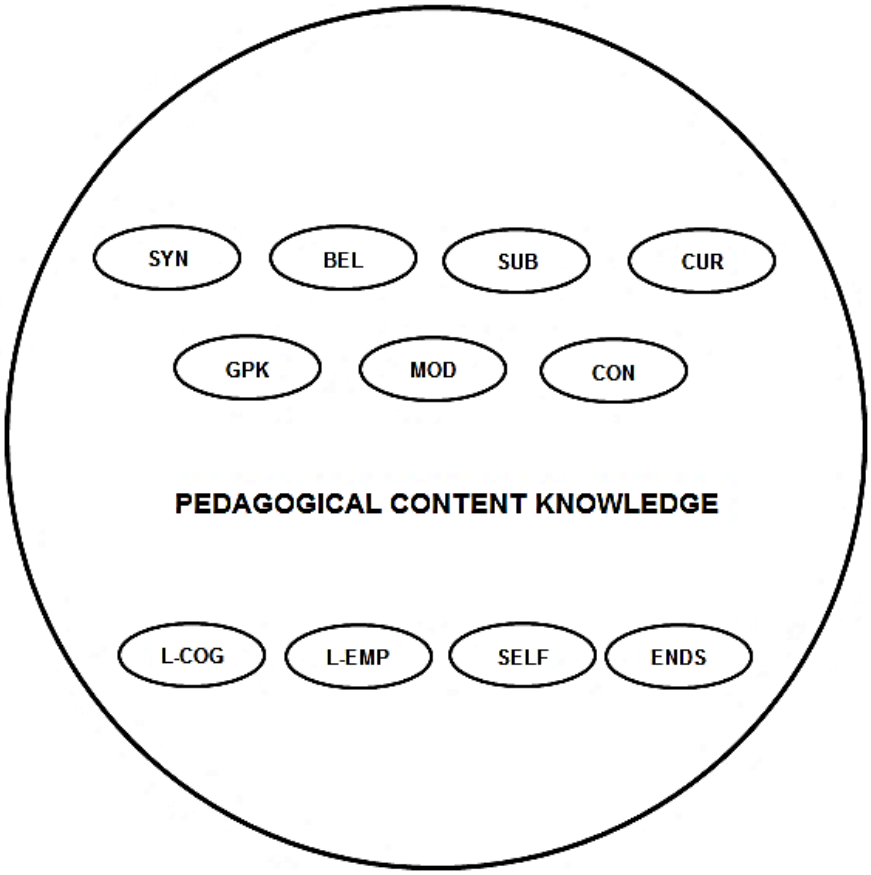
Along with Shulman's working definition of PCK (1986a:9), this study also focused on research by Turner-Bisset (1999, 2001) who elaborated on Shulman's work (1986, 1987) and created a model that offers a reconceptualisation of PCK in order to address the ambiguities identified

by scholars such as Bennett and Turner-Bisset (1993), McEwan and Bull (1991), Marks (1990), and Stones (1992). This model "is the most complete example of pedagogical content knowledge" (Turner-Bisset, 1999:47) and describes 11 knowledge bases that underpin all acts of teaching (see Figure 2.2). She argues that these knowledge bases link together to form sets with PCK as "the set which contains all of the other sets" (Turner-Bisset, 1999:47). Regardless of the fact that some of the knowledge bases are more closely interrelated than others; for example, substantive knowledge, syntactic knowledge and beliefs about the subject are all seen as aspects of subject-matter knowledge (Turner-Bisset, 1999:43), she also explains that all the knowledge bases are dynamic in nature, shaping each other and thus influencing the teacher's PCK continuously. This interaction between knowledge bases is complex, for sometimes several knowledge bases inform teaching decisions, selection of materials, teaching approaches and organisational strategies (Turner-Bisset, 1999:48). For example, it has been shown (Turner-Bisset, 1999) that only some of the knowledge bases are combined in beginning teachers: a teacher may have good subject knowledge in science, but undeveloped empirical and cognitive knowledge of learners, and limited general pedagogical content knowledge, so that she may not be able to share her scientific knowledge with her learners (Turner-Bisset, 1999:48). Another example is of a teacher with particular beliefs about the nature of history, and inadequate subject knowledge, but good knowledge of learners, both empirical and cognitive, and a broad range of teaching strategies based on good general pedagogical knowledge. Her methods of history teaching might ignore her wealth of knowledge of learners and of pedagogy, by being based on her beliefs that history is about facts and dates and memorisation. She is likely to teach by standing in front of the class and telling the learners what happened, and not giving them the evidence with which to judge for themselves (Turner-Bisset, 1999:48).

The main point that Turner-Bisset makes is that all of the 11 knowledge bases are essential for expert teaching, "…which demonstrates PCK in its most comprehensive form" – a complete amalgam (Turner-Bisset, 2001:19). If a teacher displays a thorough knowledge of all 11 knowledge bases (a well-developed PCK) he or she is likely to be a very effective teacher. This amalgam of knowledge bases is described as the nine-tenths of the iceberg below the waterline of the expert teacher: the observable aspects of teaching are the visible one-tenth of the iceberg (Turner-Bisset, 2001:14). For teachers who have not yet attained a level of expertise, Turner-Bisset (2001:17–18) suggests that only some of the 11 knowledge bases may have been developed and combined whereas others are still underdeveloped. In other words, if the novice teacher strives to become an expert, addressing the underdeveloped knowledge bases needs to be the point of departure and focus, improving each of the 11 knowledge bases to the desired level.

To illustrate the analogy of the iceberg, Turner-Bisset (2001) considers two novice teachers of English Fist Additional Language embarking on a career after initial training: a non-native, English-speaking graduate with a first degree in English and no teaching experience, and a native English speaker and former primary school teacher with no specialist study of English or any other language. The first of these might have very good subject-matter knowledge (knowledge about language), but her knowledge of learners is likely to be underdeveloped, and she may have very limited general pedagogical knowledge. In addition, her models of teaching and learning may be largely confined to the transmissive model of teaching she experienced herself as a learner. The transmissive model of teaching refers to the notion that prescribed information is simply delivered to students where students sit passively and listen (Loughran, Berry & Mulhall, 2012:1). Her method of teaching is therefore based on a theory of learning that suggests that students will learn facts, concepts, and understandings by absorbing the content of their teacher's explanations or by reading explanations from a text and answering related questions. The second teacher may, by contrast, have very limited subject-matter knowledge, but a much better knowledge of learners and general pedagogical knowledge, and a broader range of models of teaching and learning. The result would probably be that neither of these two examples is likely to be an expert teacher in their current state as some knowledge bases necessary for effective teaching are underdeveloped. Turner-Bisset (2001:125), argues that those knowledge bases which are only partial or non-existent would have the potential to grow and become fully developed as part of the amalgam that is each teacher’s PCK.

Figure 2.2 illustrates Turner-Bisset’s (1999:47) conceptualisation of the expert teacher by identifying the 11 knowledge bases that underpins the acts of teaching and therefor constitutes PCK in its most comprehensive form.



KEY TO CODES

SUB	Substantive Knowledge	CON	Knowledge of Contexts
SYN	Syntactic Knowledge	SELF	Knowledge of Self
BEL	Beliefs about the Subject	MOD	Knowledge/Models of Teaching
CUR	Curriculum Knowledge	L-COG	Knowledge of Learners: Cognitive
L-EMP	Knowledge of Learners: Empirical	ENDS	Knowledge of Educational Ends
GPK	General Pedagogical Knowledge		

Figure 2.2: A visual representation of pedagogical content knowledge (Turner-Bisset, 1999:47)

To elucidate the various knowledge bases identified in Figure 2.2 above, I would like to use a poetry lesson as example.

The language teacher starts the class by softly playing forest sounds (wind blowing through the trees, birds chirping, a stream flowing, etc.) in the background on the cd player and

displaying a picture of a road leading into a forest on the board. He walks out of the classroom and comes back with a suitcase in his one hand, a cane in the other, his hat on his head and his coat hanging over his shoulder – playing the role of a traveller. The learners look in expectation and listen intently. He stops in front of the class and with a confused look on his face, starts the poem, 'The road not travelled' by Robert Frost. When he has finished, he instructs the learners to open their textbooks on the page of the poem as he hands out a worksheet to support them in unravelling the meaning of the poem. They follow in their textbooks as he repeats the poem. He drops the role by removing the 'travelling' clothes and props and encourages the learners to engage in discussing the poem from beginning to end. He guides them with questions such as: What happens in the poem? Why could the traveller not decide which road to take? What was his decision and what influenced his choice? A classroom discussion ensues as he sets them to explore their own interpretations in pairs, learning from each other and appreciating the many facets of poetry.

In terms of knowledge of context, the school in which the lesson takes place is in a poor urban area and many learners do not have proper parental support. The teacher has a lively class of 32, one whom is diagnosed with educational needs. He has a part-time assistant to help him with this learner. The learners also have a short attention span, so his lesson needs to contain several activities to maintain momentum, therefore the decision of dressing up and acting a role to attract and hold their attention.

Using this poetry lesson as an example, the following sections are aimed at clarifying what is meant by the various knowledge bases identified in Figure 2.2.

2.6.1 Subject matter knowledge: Substantive knowledge

The substantive structures comprise the variety of ways in which the basic concepts and principles of the discipline are organised to incorporate its facts (Shulman, 1986a:9). Substantive knowledge of a subject does not refer to the "knowledge of ideas, facts, and theories of a subject" only, but also to

> understandings about the subject – for example the relative validity and centrality of different ideas or perspectives, the major disagreements within the field (in the past as well as current), how claims are justified and validated, what is entailed in doing and engaging in the discourse of the field" (Ball & McDiarmid, 1989:8).

The teacher therefore needs to have a thorough knowledge of what poetry as a discipline of the English language entails, how to engage with it and validate and justify certain claims being made about poetry itself as well as the specific poem in question. He needs to understand that there might be various interpretations of the poem and be able to guide any misconception that a learner may have. Knowledge of the purpose of the poem and history of the poet will contribute to the teacher's success in this lesson.

2.6.2 Subject matter knowledge: Syntactic knowledge

The syntactic structure of a discipline is the set of ways in which truth or falsehood, validity or invalidity, are established. Shulman (1986a:9) argues that when there are competing claims regarding a given phenomenon, the syntax of a discipline provides the rules for determining which claim has greater warranty. It should be noted that, in poetry, the syntax would be that as justification for the interpretation can be given by providing evidence from the text. If the reasoning is sound in terms of the poem, then any interpretation is valid. In this lesson the teacher would like the learners to use certain skills and processes, namely questioning, observations, reasoning and deduction to determine and influence their interpretation of the poem. He would like them to gain some understanding of why the poet wrote the poem, who the audience is and what could be interpreted. The structure of the lesson allows him to present this poem to the learners as an investigation into the meaning, slowly unravelling each line in order for each learner to reach an interpretation of his or her own by finding support in the text.

2.6.3 Subject matter knowledge: Beliefs about the subject

This knowledge base concerns itself with what teachers themselves think about the subject they teach. McDiarmid, Ball and Anderson (1989) present the argument that teachers' curricular decisions are closely related to their perception of the subject they are teaching. In other words, teachers' perceptions of the subject they teach can influence day-to-day decisions about what to teach, what to overlook, how much class time to devote to a unit and the amount of effort they are willing to put into the preparation for effective teaching thereof. A negative attitude towards the subject is unlikely to produce desired results. Moreover, Grossman (1987) found teachers' orientations towards literature and their conceptions of what is important to know to have some impact on what they teach and how teachers of English go about their work. In the sample lesson provided, this teacher believes that poetry is a discipline

which enhances both creative and logical thinking – exploring the various layers of meaning the poet might intend to be discovered and the interpretation of the poem, applying it to everyday life. He thinks it should be enjoyable, interesting and exciting, and he wants to instil within the learners the same positive attitude towards the arts as his own. The character he has created could have existed and gone through exactly the experiences he describes. He knows that roleplaying, music and visual aids are often used to help explain a concept and he enjoys making this lesson as memorable as possible.

2.6.4 Curriculum knowledge

According to Shulman (1986a:10), the curriculum is represented by:

> the full range of programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects and topics at a given level, the variety of instructional materials available in relation to those programs, and the set of characteristics that serve as both the indications and contraindications for the use of particular curriculum or program materials in particular circumstances.

For this lesson, the teacher consulted the national Department of Basic Education (DBE) curriculum for English Home Language, the Curriculum, Assessment and Policy Statement (CAPS), and with his colleagues selected to do 'The road not taken' by Robert Frost as a prescribed poem. He has a thorough understanding of what planning and assessing of the subject entail and abides by the regulations of the curriculum. For example, the CAPS curriculum states that the following should be taught when doing poetry:

> literal meaning, figurative meaning, theme and message, imagery, for example simile and personification, word choice, tone, emotional responses, and sound devices, for example lines, words, stanzas, rhyme, rhythm, punctuation, repetition, refrain, alliteration (assonance and consonance), onomatopoeia. (DBE, 2011:16)

Careful planning of these prescriptions should be followed when preparing for this poetry lesson.

2.6.5 General pedagogical knowledge

General pedagogical knowledge is included among the seven major categories of teacher knowledge identified by Shulman (1987a:8) and refers especially to "those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation that appear to transcend subject matter". Cochran et al. (1991:1) concur that "what teachers know about teaching, such as pre-instructional strategies, the use of concrete examples and manipulatives, formative testing, use of questions, design of curriculum and assignments, and assessment of student performance, comprises pedagogical knowledge" – knowledge of general instructional methods. In this sample lesson the teacher has a repertoire of a broad range of teaching strategies to be utilised including role-play, drama, storytelling and media such as music, videos and photos. He wants to grab the attention of his learners to involve them in the poem, so that they can gain an understanding of the issues through the narrative. He chooses to dress up to make the character more convincing and to elucidate that the poet and the narrator of the poem are two different entities that should not be confused with each other. He decides that the whole class will be the best organisation for the start of the lesson and the shared experience of the character he has created. He will present the poem, indulging in a little acting through action, facial expression and gesture. For the next stage he elects to have the learners working in pairs. This is in contrast to the earlier whole-class section, for he knows that learners like variety. After a period of listening, imagining and questioning, they will work in pairs to answer the questions set by the teacher.

2.6.6 Knowledge/Models of Teaching

A teacher should understand that the act of teaching, as with any discipline, is influenced by a range of theories and that these views have an impact on what teachers do, and how and why they do it. In this lesson, the teacher uses the idea of representation (Shulman, 1986b; McDiarmid et al., 1989) to "inform the way he communicates facts, concepts, skills, processes and attitudes to the children" (Turner-Bisset, 1999:50). He is also influenced by John Dewey's constructivist approach to learning (Dewey, 1916; 1933) and gives them worksheets to complete in pairs in order to construct their own understanding of the poem. It should be noted that worksheets by their very nature seem to be rigid and definitely not encouraging of interpretation, and should not be viewed as the only way to teach poetry. If the worksheet only contains a number of questions on the poem, it does not necessarily encourage interpretation. Questions would need to be formulated to encourage higher-order thinking; questions should lead to purposeful discussion and not merely be straight-forward questions requiring answers

to be found in the text. This approach opposes the notion of transmissive learning where the learners are passive participants in the lesson as the teacher instructs them what to know. Another notion that this teacher finds useful is the three forms of mental representation identified by Bruner (1970): enactive, iconic and symbolic. Enactive representation is “a way of understanding the world by acting out ideas and experiences” (Turner-Bisset, 1999:63). The teacher does not see teaching poetry, or teaching anything, as simply a matter of standing up and telling the class what to know; he understands that “for children to assimilate knowledge they need to work hard on it in some way, and make it their own” (Turner-Bisset, 1999:50).

2.6.7 Knowledge of learners: Empirical and Cognitive; Knowledge of context

Turner-Bisset (1999:50) proposes that these three areas are discussed together, since some of the bases are interlinked and also related to other knowledge bases. Here it is important to note that “a teacher's transformation of subject matter knowledge occurs in the context of two other important components of teacher knowledge which differentiate teachers from subject matter experts” (Cochran et al., 1991:6). Cochran et al. (ibid.) continue to explain that the first is a teacher's knowledge of students, including their abilities and learning strategies, ages and developmental levels, attitudes, motivations, and their prior knowledge of the concepts to be taught. The second component of teacher knowledge that contributes to pedagogical content knowledge is “teachers' understanding of the social, political, cultural and physical environments in which students are asked to learn”.

In terms of knowledge of context, the school in which the lesson takes place is in a poor urban area and many learners do not have proper parental support. The teacher has a lively class of 32, one of them diagnosed with educational needs. Luckily he has a part-time assistant to help him with this learner. The learners also have a short attention span, so his lesson needs to contain several activities to maintain momentum, therefore the decision to dress up and act a role to attract and hold their attention. He wants them to remember and understand the material. He argues that the best way to do this is via role play: the enactive representation. The learners with barriers to learning involving reading will have access to the material through the story and acting. The fact that they have to discuss the poem and answer the questions in groups means that they will be able to help one another other and therefore learn from each other. The end of the session involves reporting back so that the learners can share their information. The teacher hopes that discovering their own answers and interpretations will make the learners more motivated. The heart of these knowledge bases is that the teacher

must have a thorough knowledge of his or her students' background, cognitive capacities and context.

2.6.8 Knowledge of self

In her review of learning-to-teach studies, Kagan (1992:147) identified the central role played by a novice's self-image: "Indeed without a strong image of self as teacher, a novice may be doomed to flounder". In other words, how a teacher values his or her personal identity, may have a drastic impact on success in the classroom. This notion is supported by Nias (1989), who argues that the best way to understand primary teachers' interpretation of their work and their developing relationship to it is by aiming to understand the importance that they attach to sense of personal identity. Turner-Bisset (1999:46) concurs by stating that "teachers exist as people before they become teachers and their work calls for a massive investment of their 'selves' in a historically determined context which encouraged individualism, isolationism, a belief in one's own autonomy and the investment of personal resources". In other words, personal identity is an essential constituent in the way teachers view and engage with their job. The teacher in the sample lesson knows himself and feels completely comfortable with dressing oddly in front of his class. He also has a strong interest in drama and has acting experience from having been part of the drama group in high school, which makes him confident to live out his love for the dramatic arts in role play. He understands that even though some learners may laugh, engaging with the poem and the message of the poet as well as possible, will only contribute to the success of the lesson.

2.6.9 Knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values

This knowledge base is included in Shulman's categories of knowledge for the expert teacher (1987a:8) and concerns the ends for which teachers do what they do; the purpose of their act of teaching. Indeed, studies have confirmed that teaching is a purposeful activity, both in the sense of short-term goals for a lesson or series of lessons (Bennett, Desforges, Cockburn & Wilkinson, 1984) and in the sense of long-term goals of intrinsically valuable experience (Peters, 1965), or eventual value to society. In addition, Shulman (1987b:477) recognises that the moral dimension of teaching is important: "surely, teaching is a moral activity, an activity made meaningful because of the goals pursued and not only the means employed…there is a socio-moral quality to teaching, but it is only one of many essential qualities". In the lesson, the teacher's short-term goal is to use the specific poem to teach his learners the skills

necessary to approach poetry and guide them to discover the many layers of metaphoric language. Those skills need to be taught and practised and the classroom is the ideal environment to do so. His long-term goals, however, are to make the learners as literate and as numerate as he can during his limited time with them. He understands that many the learners do not find thinking poetically, expressing themselves, interpreting data and applying newly attained skills easy. He therefore strives to make the lesson as creative and enjoyable as possible. Stimulating self-expression and logical thinking is of high importance to him. He would like learners to reason, to question, to find answers to their own questions, and in the long term to be able to express themselves confidently. He also has the means to address deeper issues of everyday life with his learners – issues of such as morality, for example, that may influence their choices in the future. Therefore, he strives to describe and explain each lesson with such clarity that his students may render their own moral judgements and apply it to their own lives.

The success of this lesson rests on the collaboration of all the knowledge bases identified by Turner-Bisset (1999:47). These knowledge bases form the sets comprising PCK – the "nine-tenth of the iceberg" below the waterline that is not visible to others, yet paramount to producing desired visible results. The effective integration of knowledge bases therefore underpins the very enactment of expert teaching; hence having sound PCK leads to high quality teaching and is likely to create positive student outcomes.

2.7 Pedagogical content knowledge and language teaching

Freeman (2002), reviewing research on teacher knowledge and learning to teach, discusses PCK and points out that applying PCK to language education can be problematic. He argues that PCK linked to the conceptualisation of "appropriate and provocative representations of the content to be learned" (Grossman, 1990:8) is a highly linguistic undertaking in any subject: "The teacher engages her students, and the students engage one another, with the content of the lesson through language" (Freeman, 2002:6). He then goes on to suggest that when PCK is applied to language as subject matter, it "…becomes a messy and possibly unworkable concept" (Freeman, 2002:6). He argues that the reason for this is that, in pedagogical practice, the teacher's knowledge of subject matter would probably be defined in linguistic terms, while students' prior knowledge and conceptions of language would most likely be based on their home language (L1). The meeting of teacher and student conceptions in the additional language (L2) classroom will therefore take place in a mixture of L1 and L2, setting up "… at least three, potentially conflicting, levels of representation: the teacher's linguistic knowledge,

the students' first language background, and the classroom language interactions" (Freeman, 2002:6). Andrews (2003:89) notes that the situation outlined by Freeman certainly illustrates the complexity of the L2 teacher's PCK, which necessarily involves knowledge about students' conceptions and misconceptions of both L2 and L1., Andrews (2003:89), however, argues that this complexity "does not seem to be grounds for describing PCK as messy and unworkable when applied to language teaching". Indeed, he describes that it is precisely at the interface that Freeman illustrates that the teacher's language awareness comes into play, with the language-aware teacher being equipped to resolve what Freeman regards as potential conflicts.

2.8 Language-awareness

Andrews (2003) described the language awareness of teachers as comprising a number of defining characteristics:

Firstly, Andrews (2003:85) states that central to any teacher's language awareness is the closeness of the relationship between knowledge about language (subject-matter knowledge) and knowledge of language (language proficiency). To elaborate this claim he says that "knowledge of subject matter is widely seen as being the core of a teacher's language awareness" (Andrews, 2003:82). In recent years, however, concerns about the subject-matter knowledge of L2 teachers, both native speakers and non-native speakers, have increased, especially in relation to the teaching of English. This has arisen in part because the burgeoning demand for English worldwide has led to a demand for teachers that can be met in the short term only by employing significant numbers of people who lack the appropriate qualifications in that role (Andrews, 2003:82). This is in contrast to Shulman's argument (1986) that subject matter knowledge is an essential part of teacher professionalism. In his view, teachers are professionals because they need to take thoughtful, grounded actions under conditions which are inherently uncertain and complex. Shulman asserts that for such actions to be effective, they need to be based on deep knowledge of subject matter.

With regard to the knowledge required of the L2 teacher, Andrews (2003:86) argues that, in addition to sound knowledge of subject matter (knowledge about language), language proficiency (knowledge of language) is also crucial. The close connection between a teacher's knowledge about language (i.e. subject-matter knowledge), knowledge of language (i.e. proficiency) and pedagogical practice has been discussed by a number of writers on L2 teacher education. Wright and Bolitho (1993:297), for instance, propose a methodological

framework for Language Awareness activities for teachers that can be incorporated in the training of a non-native speaker as a L2 teacher. They argue that the L2 teacher must learn to take on the role of language user (which requires an adequate level of language proficiency); language analyst (which is dependent on possession of a sound knowledge of the language systems); and language teacher (which demands an ability to create and handle opportunities for language learning in the classroom). Wright and Bolitho's framework emphasises the interconnected nature of these three roles. Their model of classroom language content and use, in which awareness and proficiency interlink, covers a spectrum from the most predictable pedagogical events (where teacher language use can be prepared in advance) to the entirely unpredictable, where the teacher "…needs to be able to operate in a fluid discourse world which is created by the interaction of teacher, students and materials" (Wright & Bolitho, 1997:163-164). This relationship exists at a number of levels, with, for example, any planning of the language content of teaching drawing on reflection on both types of knowledge, and with the former being mediated by the latter whenever the L2 is being used as the medium of instruction (Andrews, 2003:86). Knowledge and beliefs about subject matter (i.e. subject-matter cognitions) are closely related to knowledge of language, thereby giving this combination of PCK components a dimension unique to the English FAL teacher.

Andrews (2003:85), secondly, argues that teachers' language awareness is metacognitive in nature as it involves an "extra cognitive dimension of reflections upon both knowledge of subject matter and language proficiency, which provides a basis for the tasks of planning and teaching". This is what distinguishes the knowledge base of the teacher from that of the learner: Leech (1994:18) differentiates between 'Teachers' Grammar' and 'Grammar for learners', saying of the former that it entails "…a higher degree of grammar consciousness than most direct learners are likely to need or want". Brumfit (1997:163) refers to this metacognitive dimension as "…the central role of teachers as educational linguists (i.e. as conscious analysts of linguistic processes, both their own and others')".

Lastly, teachers' language awareness encompasses an awareness of language from the learner's perspective, an awareness of the learner's developing interlanguage, and an awareness of the extent to which the language content of materials/lessons poses difficulties for students (Andrews, 2003:87). As Wright (2002:115) observes, 'A linguistically aware teacher not only understands how language works, but understands the student's struggle with language and is sensitive to errors and other interlanguage features' (Wright, 2002:115).

Based on research by Freeman (2002) and Andrews (2003), it is evident that the English first additional language (FAL) teacher has yet another knowledge base to add to the repertoire:

awareness of various cognitive processes within the minds of learners with varied linguistic backgrounds. I agree with Andrews' argument (2003) that a better approach to the "potential conflictions" created by applying PCK to language teaching, as described by Freeman (2002), would seem to provide support for the inclusion of language awareness as an additional component of PCK specific to the language teacher.

In conclusion, well-developed PCK attests to the effective integration of various knowledge bases such as substantive knowledge; knowledge of contexts; syntactic knowledge; knowledge of self; beliefs about the subject; knowledge/models of teaching; curriculum knowledge; knowledge of learners: cognitive and empirical; knowledge of educational ends; and general pedagogical knowledge; as well as language awareness. Effective teaching requires the teacher to be proficient in all of these knowledge bases in order to be regarded as having well-developed PCK. With regard to this study, I have aimed to determine the level of their preparedness for the "nine-tenths of the iceberg" below the waterline of writing education as perceived by English FAL teachers. This comprised an attempt to contribute to the challenging task of developing teachers' PCK, seeing that there is a demand for future research in this area (Grouws & Schultz, 1996; Hill & Ball, 2009).

2.9 Pedagogical content knowledge required for Writing Pedagogy

This section discusses PCK in light of writing education. First, an argument is made for the importance of writing education and concerns regarding the attention writing receives in literacy education are emphasised. Different approaches to writing education are discussed with specific focus on the process and product approaches. Lastly, attention is given to the CAPS prescriptions for writing education in order to determine what CAPS requires of teachers for successful implementation of the curriculum.

2.9.1 The importance of writing education

Writing well is of critical importance for success in a wide variety of situations and professions. It therefore follows that educational institutions, such as schools and universities, should invest much effort in developing learners' writing abilities. This idea is emphasised by McNamara, Crossley and McCarthy (2009:58) who state that writing, in particular "the ability to articulate ideas, argue opinions, and synthesize multiple perspectives," remains a "significant challenge for students". However, this struggle does not only pertain to students. Sailors, Hoffman and

Matthee (2007:385) identified writing instruction in general as a struggle, even in high-performing schools, and state:

> Our observations suggested that the "conception" of literacy focused on reading and not on writing. We observed practically no instruction in writing that offered the learners the opportunity to create texts. We saw spelling and "copying" but seldom were there "authentic" writing opportunities. This lack of opportunity may be a result of a lack of professional development for the teachers or the absence of materials. Regardless, we are certain there is a need for greater attention to writing.

Against this background, and from my personal experience as a primary school teacher, I am convinced that learners have the capacity but often do not get the opportunity to learn how to improve their writing ability. Much emphasis is placed on reading, which is necessary, but writing well is not just an option for modern-day people – it should also be seen as a necessity and should receive as much attention as reading development. Since students communicate through reading and writing in computer-mediated environments, it follows that strong demands are placed on proficient literacy skills for participation and should be one of the main focuses of school curricula. Employees in the modern age are required to produce written documentation, visual and text presentations, memoranda, technical reports, and electronic messages. Graham and Perin (2007:8) suggest that "the explosion of electronic and wireless communication in everyday life brings writing skills into play as never before" and it would make sense for proficient writers to adapt their writing flexibly to the context in which it takes place. The National Commission on Writing (2004, 2005) moreover reports that the majority of both public and private employers say that writing proficiency has now become critical in the workplace and that it directly affects hiring and promotion decisions.

Graham and Perin (2007:8) state that writing plays two distinct but complementary roles, in the school setting:

> First, it is a skill that draws on the use of strategies (such as planning, evaluating, and revising texts) to accomplish a variety of goals, such as writing a report or expressing an opinion with the support of evidence. Second, writing is a means of extending and deepening students' knowledge; it acts as a tool for learning subject matter.

Scholars like Keys (2000), Shanahan (2004), and Sperling and Freedman (2001) agree with the notion that well-developed writing skills enhance the ability of students to comprehend concepts within the subject matter and express their thinking. Along with reading comprehension "writing skill is a predictor of academic success and a basic requirement for

participation in civic life and in the global economy" (Graham & Perin, 2007:3). As indicated previously, only 12% of South African students will qualify for university (Spaull, 2013:5). Those who do not finish school lack the literacy skills to meet the growing demands of the curriculum (Kamil, 2003). This indicates that knowledge of the curriculum and successful command of its content is of paramount importance. Because the definition of literacy includes both reading and writing skills, poor proficiency in writing should be recognised as an intrinsic part of South Africa's literacy crisis (as demonstrated by the Annual National Assessment tests of 2013). Yet, compared to reading instruction, writing instruction is "a topic that has previously not received enough attention from researchers or educators" (Graham & Perin, 2007:3). Kamil (2003:3) recognises that on the frontlines, in our classrooms, "school educators too often find that their students do not have the necessary literacy skills to use reading and writing effectively to learn subject matter He explains that educators know that something needs to be done but are "daunted, understandably, by the considerable task of identifying and applying research-based literacy strategies".

2.9.2 Approaches to writing education

The English teacher can draw on a range of approaches to teaching writing. Badger and White (2000:153) explain that "process and product approaches have dominated much of the teaching of writing" that happens in the English classroom. The distinction between these approaches is noted by Tobin (2001:4): by the early 1980s, the influence of process had become so strong that:

> you were either one of the process-oriented teachers arguing for student choice of topics and forms; the necessity of authentic voice; writing as a messy, organic, recursive form of discovery, growth, and personal expression; or you were a teacher who believed that we needed to resist process' attack on rules, conventions, standards, quality, and rigor.

To explain the product-based approach, Murray (1997:3) states that "most of us are trained as English teachers by studying a product: writing". It is an approach in which we focus our critical attentions on what our students have done and if we are not satisfied with the final product, the students are to blame. This approach is mainly concerned with "knowledge about the structure of language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input, in the form of texts provided by the teacher" (Badger & White, 2000:154). Matsuda (2003:67) views the era in which this approach was dominant in writing education as "the bad old days",

as students merely learned “modes of discourse and applied them to write their five-paragraph themes on topics assigned by the teacher, which were then graded without the opportunity to receive feedback or to revise”. The implications are that language skills are hierarchically sequenced, and writing is reduced to a limited range of exercises and activities in the product approach. Students are taught what to write, instead of how to write; emphasis is placed on the specific rules to which the written task has to conform, rather than on the development and articulation of ideas. Given that students bring their own preconceptions (and misconceptions) to the classroom (Shulman, 1987:8), it follows that writing instruction should primarily be focused on the process, rather than the product of writing. Whereas a teacher with well-developed PCK adapts to the various needs in the classroom to make the incomprehensible content and skills accessible to his or her students, the primary role played by the teacher in the product approach to the written task is that of examiner.

The process pedagogy emphasises the importance of teaching writing not as product but as process:

> helping students discover their own voice; of recognizing that students have something important to say; of allowing students to choose their own topic; of providing teacher and peer feedback; of encouraging revision; and of using student writing as the primary text of the course.
>
> (Matsuda, 2003:67)

Murray (1997:3) states that this approach focuses on the process of discovery through language, or, as he calls it, “language in action”. The rise of the process approach to writing education led to a paradigm shift in the field and basically revolutionised the teaching of written composition. “There is no doubt that the process movement helped to call attention to aspects of writing that had been neglected in many writing classrooms; it also contributed to the professionalization of composition studies” (Matsuda, 2003:67). In contrast to teachers merely being examiners, Zamel (1987:710) had earlier suggested that teachers should rather take on the role of co-inquirer in an intellectual enterprise, which means that “we are much more likely to come to an understanding of the processes that underlie our own particular students' writing performance and to appreciate the factors that influence this performance”. Differently stated, when teachers participate with their students in their own exploration through writing, they are more likely to discover why the students write the way they do and what behaviours and strategies are employed during the writing process in developing the written task. Zamel (ibid.) explains the importance of this approach, stating that these are behaviours and strategies that “remain hidden in a written text” and could not be noticed by the teacher if his or her role was

to merely grade the text afterwards. One of the greatest advantages about being actively part of the students' writing process is highlighted by Zamel (ibid.) and ties in with the PCK development of the successful writing teacher:

> As we ask ourselves questions about our students' writing processes, we are much more likely to examine our own teaching and ask ourselves whether the particular task or assignment has been sufficiently clarified, whether it matches with our students' intentions, whether it connects with what students already know.

The process approach to writing therefore offers the opportunity for the teacher to observe the students' work, respond to their drafts as work in progress and raise questions that require them to reconsider, elaborate, or extend.

Murray (1997:4) explains that process writing means that the writing process itself can be divided into three stages: prewriting, writing, and rewriting. "The amount of time a writer spends in each stage depends on his personality, his work habits, his maturity as a craftsman, and the challenge of what he is trying to say". It is important to note that "it [is] not a rigid lock-step process, but most writers most of the time pass through these three stages" Murray, 1997:4).

> *Prewriting* is everything that takes place before the first draft. Pre-writing usually takes about 85% of the writer's time. It includes the awareness of his world from which his subject is born. In prewriting, the writer focuses on that subject, spots an audience, chooses a form which may carry his subject to his audience. Prewriting may include research and daydreaming, note-making and outlining, title-writing and lead-writing.
>
> *Writing* is the act of producing a first draft. It is the fastest part of the process, and the most frightening, for it is a commitment. When you complete a draft you know how much, and how little, you know. And the writing of this first draft rough, searching, unfinished may take as little as one percent of the writer's time.
>
> *Rewriting* is reconsideration of subject, form, and audience. It is re-searching, rethinking, redesigning, rewriting and finally, line-by-line editing, the demanding, satisfying process of making each word right. It may take many times the hours required for a first draft, perhaps the remaining fourteen percent of the time the writer spends on the project.

The way in which these three stages were operationalised in the CAPS is discussed next.

2.9.3 CAPS prescriptions for writing education

In respect of the English FAL curriculum, the CAPS document (DBE, 2011:11) indicates that the process approach is to be followed in writing education in the intermediate phase. It states that frequent writing practice across a variety of contexts, tasks and subjects "enables learners to communicate functionally and creatively" and that writing which is appropriately scaffolded "produces competent, versatile writers who will be able to use their skills to develop and present appropriate written, visual and multi-media texts for a variety of purposes". Furthermore, it acknowledges that, in the intermediate phase, "First Additional Language learners will need careful support and guidance to develop the skills of producing sustained written text" – this is to be done by employing "the writing process to produce well-organised, grammatically correct writing texts" (DBE, 2011:11). According to the curriculum, writing and designing texts is a process which consists of the following stages:

a) Pre-writing/planning
b) Drafting
c) Revision
d) Editing/Proofreading
e) Publishing/presenting

(DBE, 2011:11-12)

According to Barnett (1992:18), pre-writing activities help students start writing their papers: "they involve students with a composition topic, let them realize what might be included in their papers, help them work out rhetorical problems, or review or provide useful vocabulary." It is an "invention device and argues that students must learn the structures of thinking that lead to writing". Chastain (1988:254) likewise emphasised the importance of pre-writing activities in motivating students to write.

Following the process-based approach in writing instructing, the idea is that, once the topic and planning have been introduced, the students begin structuring their first drafts. Research shows that better writers believe that it is important to write drafts (Dvorak, 1986:151). This self-editing approach requires all students to write a first draft, which should be revised to present a better, but not perfect, composition before the teacher sees it.

The writing process is an approach to teaching students how to write and should pertain to every writing task in English. The CAPS document explains that "learners need an opportunity to put this process into practice" and provide a more detailed description of the roles of students and teachers during the writing lessons. Students should:

a) decide on the purpose and audience of a text to be written and/or designed;
b) brainstorm ideas using, for example mind maps, flow charts or lists;
c) consult relevant sources, select relevant information and organise ideas;
d) produce a first draft which takes into account purpose, audience, topic and text structure;
e) read drafts critically and get feedback from others (classmates or the teacher);
f) edit and proofread the draft; and
g) produce a neat, legible, edited final version

(DBE, 2011:12)

Tribble (1996:37) suggests that, although there are different process approaches to writing, they share a core feature – process approaches stress "writing activities which move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data through to the 'publication' of a finished text". It seems, therefore, that the process approach is seen as a method for teaching writing which predominantly focuses on the development of linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting. Much less emphasis is being placed on linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about grammar and text structure.

Badger and White (2000:154) offer a practical example of how the writing process could manifest in the classroom:

> A typical prewriting activity in the process approach would be for learners to brainstorm on the topic of houses. At the composing/drafting stage they would select and structure the result of the brainstorming session to provide a plan of a description of a house. This would guide the first draft of a description of a particular house. After discussion, learners might revise the first draft working individually or in groups. Finally, the learners would edit or proof-read the text.

Given that this approach to teaching writing emphasises the transition of generating ideas to the publication of a well-developed final draft, it follows that revision and editing should receive much attention during the learning experience. However, Christiansen (1990:70) states that:

> "professional writers spend 25 percent of their time revising manuscripts, yet secondary school students devote less than 1 percent to editing and revising. If the time

> professional writers spend revising their manuscripts is indicative of what any writer might do, then revision is a most neglected aspect of teaching composition.

I have noted this in my own teaching career as well – revising and editing often consist of only correcting spelling errors and the layout of the text, but time is rarely allocated for the further development and improvement of current ideas in the first draft. Students need to learn techniques for editing their written work so that what they finally submit is not equivalent to a first draft.

In respect of evaluating and marking learners' written work, Christiansen (1990:71) states that learners often are

> unaware of, or do not understand, teachers' evaluative criteria. In any case, they place scant emphasis on revision either before or after grading, and, consequently, do not come to value this important writing even though there seems to be no evidence to support one revision process over another.

He continues to explain that, when students hand in a paper without revision,

> they may be demonstrating their ability to organize and express thoughts, they may be showing that they understand basic conventions of written communication. Their main objective, however, may be simply to complete the assignment, not to perform to the best of their ability.
>
> (Christiansen, 1990:71)

Fitzgerald (1987:481) also stated that revision should receive much attention in writing lessons, stating that it is "commonly regarded as a central and important part of writing", explaining that it "enables writers to muddle through and organize what they know in order to find a line of argument, to learn anew, and to discover what was not known before". She explains that revision is significant, partly because it may under certain circumstances enhance the quality of final written work and partly because, when writers use revision to rework thoughts and ideas, it may powerfully affect writers' knowledge. Moreover, leaners who do not learn the value of revising and editing their own work, miss "an important part of the educational process in its broadest sense: self-criticism" (Christiansen, 1990:71). This means that unsupported generalisations, irrelevant detail, or a redundant statement should be seen as valuable learning opportunities, rather than areas in which learners could be penalised in the final draft. Christiansen (ibid.) states that "only by working out an awkward sentence, choosing the most appropriate word, and correcting a dangling modifier can they participate

in the complexities of written language". It seems that the ultimate goal of teaching learners the value of self-criticism – in reading their work critically, revising and editing it in order to improve the quality of the final draft – should be to lead them to become their own teachers. This is a skill that has to be taught explicitly.

An implication of the writing process is that, in order to be successful, enough time should be allocated for the students and teacher to effectively work through all the stages of developing each student's writing ability. Each of these stages could be viewed as vital to "producing sustained written text" (DBE, 2011:11) and has to be developed on its own. It would make sense for the curriculum to provide sufficient time for teachers and students to work on writing, yet the CAPS curriculum prescribes 29 genres (DBE, 2011:33-92) to be covered in a given school year. As teacher of English FAL in the intermediate phase, I have first-hand experience of the workload that rests on the shoulders of a language teacher. These prescribed genres have to be graded and this is part of the overall grades for English FAL each term. The implication is that, before a genre (or written task) can be graded, the students should have been exposed to it first and should at least have had time to practise and improve their writing skills for the particular genre. Therefore, instead of 29 genres (or written tasks) per year, the teacher and students are actually expected to do 58 written tasks – one informal task for practising, learning and exploring, and then the task which is to be graded for the report. The writing process should ideally be followed for all 58 tasks. Given that English FAL not only consists of writing outcomes but of reading and viewing, speaking and listening, and language structures and convention outcomes as well, all with their own high demands, it could be said that sufficient time for effective teaching should be considered when the quality of South Africa's writing education is brought into question.

In conclusion, this chapter has presented a discussion of the knowledge bases for effective teaching and emphasised the importance of PCK as the overarching knowledge base comprising of all of the others. Well-developed PCK is likely to lead to better teaching practice. PCK has been linked to writing education and the importance of explicit teaching and developing learners' writing abilities was outlined. A brief comparison between the product approach and the process approach was made, with the emphasis being on the process approach as the desirable approach to be followed. The stages of the writing process, as they appear in the literature and in the CAPS, informed the structure of the survey.

The next chapter presents the methodology followed in this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter advocated the view that well-developed pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is paramount to effective teaching of writing and that enhancement of a teacher's PCK would result in improvement of teacher quality in South Africa and student outcome. Sufficient PCK implies that the teacher of writing displays an in-depth knowledge of all the knowledge bases that are deemed necessary for the writing lesson as prescribed by the CAPS curriculum.

Creswell (2003:3) recommends that a general framework be adopted to provide guidance in all facets of a study, from assessing the general philosophical ideas behind the inquiry to detailed data collection and analysis procedures. This idea is rooted in Crotty's work (1998) and advocates that four aspects should be considered when designing a research study: "epistemology that informs the research, theoretical perspective governing methodology and finally the methods we propose to use" Creswell (2003:4).

For this study, it was borne in mind that the above-mentioned aspects are "interrelated levels of decisions that go into designing the research" (Creswell 2003:5) and that the research design had to be strictly governed by it. This chapter therefore aims to explain and justify the research design selected for this study in addressing Creswell's (ibid.) three central questions:

1. What knowledge claims are being made by the researcher (including a theoretical perspective)?
2. What strategies of inquiry will inform the procedures?
3. What methods of data collection and analysis will be used?

The following section serves as a description of the theoretical perspective towards the study.

3.2 Theoretical perspectives

All individuals have different beliefs and ways of viewing and interacting with their surroundings. Babbie (2004:33) points out that there usually is more than one way of making sense of things based on particular models or frameworks for observation and understanding, and shaping what we see and how we see it. Researchers similarly do the same in their research – they bring "a general philosophical view about the world and the nature of research to the study" (Creswell, 2009:6) – and, as a result, the ways in which research studies are conducted may vary. That means that researchers have different philosophies about knowledge and they use different descriptions for the way in which they view the world. There are certain standards and rules that govern a researcher's actions and beliefs, however, and such standards or principles can be referred to as a paradigm, as a "research paradigm or perspective is the underlying set of beliefs about how the elements of the research fit together and how we can enquire of it and make meaning of our discoveries" (Wisker, 2001:123). Creswell (2009:5) reiterates the importance of determining the philosophical view in which the study is rooted and states that "although philosophical ideas remain hidden in research, they still influence the practice of research and they need to be identified".

An example of such a world view can be that things, events and people interact and link logically and therefore logical conclusions can be determined through scientific inquiry. This is called the positivist paradigm as positivism "assumes we can scientifically discover the rules governing social life" (Babbie, 2011:61). The positivist paradigm has its roots in physical science and "uses a systematic, scientific approach to research" (Mukherji & Albon, 2010:11), which means that it relies on quantitative scientific experiments that can clearly detect cause and effect. Denzin and Lincoln (1998:185) depict positivism as the paradigm which focuses on "internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity". In other words, it ignores the influence of context on results and cannot fully take account of the ways in which inquiry is interactive, meaning that "sets of facets can be read in different ways as it is value-laden, not value-free" (Wisker, 2001:123).

In contrast to positivism and the belief in the absolute truth of observations (causes determine effects), another view can be that the way in which we view the world concerning our beliefs affect how we interpret our research field and the items within it, and that we are studying and interpreting interactions between people, things and relationships (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998:187-193). This view is called interpretivism and is explained by Ritchie, Lewis, McNaughton, Nicholls and Ormston (2013:12) as knowledge being produced by "exploring and understanding the social world of the people being studied, and focusing on their meanings and interpretations". This implies that researchers also construct meanings and interpretations based on those of participants as "research based on this paradigm aims at

the production of reconstructed understandings" (Wisker, 2001:123). Interpretivists view knowledge as being constructed through the observation of phenomena and descriptions of beliefs, values, understandings and meaning making of individuals – a process based on individual interpretation. The interpretivist therefore is especially interested in data of a qualitative nature. This paradigm served as the lens through which open-ended questions were designed and analysed. In the current survey, the aim of open-ended questions was to obtain further insight into the possible reasons for the perceived preparedness of teachers in this study. These explanations were to be triangulated with data from the survey.

3.3 Strategies of inquiry

As discussed in the previous section, a particular world view, or paradigm, allows the researcher to choose a specific method of enquiry to craft the study – be it a qualitative, quantitative or a mixed-methods approach. Firstly, the tenet of the positivist philosophy is "objectivity gained through enumeration, aggregation, and causation as it leads to a scientific, systematic approach to research" and, as such, "lends itself to the use of quantitative methodology" (Mukherji & Albon, 2010:14). Quantitative analysis, as described by Babbie (2011:420), is "the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect". Babbie explains that the quantitative research design is a detailed plan of operation with predetermined hypotheses. It requires of the researcher to be unbiased in taking an outside and objective view to studying the subject at hand. Based on this description, this study primarily leaned toward a positivist paradigm because it was clear from the nature of the research question that a single aspect of human behaviour (perceived preparedness of PCK for writing) would be quantitatively measured in accordance with a prescribed standard (CAPS for writing development). This led to viewing the study through the perspective of positivism. A survey using questionnaires administered to English FAL teachers served as the basis for producing quantitative data as it produced numerical results.

Secondly, Bhaskar (1989), in contrast to the strict scientific, quantitative approach to research, views the world from an interpretivist philosophical perspective which includes methodologies focusing on discourse, human perception and motivation, as human reasons can serve as causal explanations. Data obtained through the interpretive paradigm tend to be qualitative in nature. Denzin and Lincoln (2003:3) describe qualitative research as:

> a situated activity that locates the observer in the world, consisting of "a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible. These practices... turn the world into a series of representations including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

In other words, qualitative research is concerned with understanding the meanings which people attach to phenomena (actions, decisions, beliefs, values, etc.) in their social worlds. In Bryman's (1988:8) words, "the way in which people being studied understand and interpret their social reality is one of the central motifs of qualitative research". McEvoy and Richards (2006:71) also support the value of using interpretivist methodologies, stating that "the key strength of qualitative methods is that they are open-ended". This may allow themes that could not have been anticipated in advance to emerge during the course of an inquiry. Abusabha and Woelfel (2003:566) concur that qualitative research aims "to capture life as it is lived" and trying to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations. A typical attribute of qualitative researchers would therefore be to watch people in their own settings and interact with them on their own terms, believing that the best way to understand a phenomenon is to study it in its context and become immersed in it. They argue that human experience cannot be described through using numbers or adequately explained by manipulating, measuring, or controlling variables. In other words, qualitative researchers call for a certain degree of flexibility. Instead of developing a structured survey with fixed question-and-response categories, "they allow the questions to emerge and change as they become more familiar with the subject area" (Abusabha & Woelfel, ibid.). Examples of the most common qualitative methodologies that researchers can apply in qualitative inquiry include the case study, grounded theory, observations (participant and nonparticipant), interviews, and document and artefact analysis (Savenye & Robinson, 2005:71).

However, I tend to agree with methodological pragmatists such as Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) and Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) who argue that researchers should use whatever methods are needed to obtain the optimum results, even if this involves switching between alternative paradigms. Plowright (2011:2) also rejects the "traditional dichotomy" between qualitative methods and quantitative methods and advocates the view of "integration of different elements of the research process to ensure the effective and successful study of social and educational phenomena". The logic is that "neither quantitative nor qualitative methods alone are sufficient to develop a complete analysis" (McEvoy & Richards, 2006:68)

and they, as consequence, sometimes need to be used in combination, so that they can complement each other. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:18) support this by stating that "many research questions and combinations of questions are best and most fully answered through mixed research solutions".

Creswell (2003:18) describes the mixed-methods approach as one in which the researcher tends to "employ strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems" and suggests that data collection also involves "gathering both numeric information (e.g. on instruments) as well as text information (e.g. on interviews) so that the final database represents both qualitative and quantitative information". Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:18) suggest that researchers first need to consider all the relevant characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research if they want to mix research in an effective manner. For example, "the major characteristics of traditional quantitative research are a focus on deduction, confirmation, theory/hypothesis testing, explanation, prediction, standardized data collection, and statistical analysis". In comparison, they explain that the major characteristics of traditional qualitative research are "induction, discovery, exploration, theory/hypothesis generation, the researcher as the primary 'instrument' of data collection, and qualitative analysis". The purpose of carefully considering the characteristics of both kinds of research is to gain an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research, and that, according to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:19) "puts a researcher in a position to mix or combine strategies". These writers suggest that researchers should collect multiple data using different strategies, approaches, and methods in such a way that the resulting mixture or combination is likely to result in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses.

How the mixed-method approach manifests is illustrated in Table 3.1, which presents the qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches (Creswell, 2003:19):

Tending to or Typically	Qualitative Approach	Quantitative Approach	Mixed Methods Approach
Using these philosophical assumptions	Constructivist/ Advocacy/ Participatory knowledge claims,	Positivist knowledge claims	Pragmatic knowledge claims
Employing these strategies of inquiry	Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and narrative	Surveys and experiments	Sequential, concurrent, and transformative
Employing these methods	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data	Closed-ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data	Both open- and closed-ended questions, both emerging and predetermined approaches, and both qualitative and quantitative data and analysis
Using these practices in research, as the researcher	Positions himself or herself Collects participants meanings Focuses on a single concept or phenomenon Brings personal values into the study Studies the context or setting of the participants Validates the accuracy of findings Makes interpretations of the data Creates an agenda for change and reform Collaborates with the participants	Tests or verifies theories or explanations Identifies variables to study Relates variables in questions or hypotheses Uses standards of validity and reliability Observes and measures information numerically Uses unbiased approaches Employs statistical procedures	Collects both qualitative and quantitative data Develops a rationale for mixing Integrates the data at different stages of inquiry Presents visual pictures of the procedures in the study Employs the practices of both qualitative and quantitative research

Table 3.1: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches

The following description focuses on how these three approaches conflate in this study:

1. Qualitative approach: The focus was that of a case study focusing on a particular group of teachers (intermediate phase teachers of English as a first additional language in the Western Cape) and their PCK as it emerged from the CAPS.

   Firstly, a detailed document analysis of the CAPS curriculum was undertaken to identify all PCK-related terminology to be mastered by all teachers of writing in English FAL in the intermediate phase. The identified terminology served as the items that were tested by the questionnaire.

2. Quantitative approach: This approach focused on positivist knowledge claims, experimental strategy of inquiry and the measurement of attitudes.

   This study employed a survey in the form of a Likert-scale questionnaire in which teachers' attitudes were assessed with regard to their perceived preparedness to teach the writing curriculum effectively. The data were collected through an instrument that numerically measured attitudes, and the information collected was analysed using statistical procedures and hypothesis testing.

3. Qualitative approach: This study also focused on constructivist knowledge claims and participatory knowledge claims.

   Here the aim was to deepen the interpretation of the quantitative data gathered through the questionnaire by means of open-ended questions. This gave insight into the outcome of the quantitative data and perhaps established a deeper sense of understanding of the phenomenon.

The study thus used a mixed-methods approach that focused on pragmatic knowledge claims and the sequential collection of both quantitative and qualitative data.

The inquiry was based on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides a better understanding of the research problem. The study commenced with detailed document analysis, then developed the data gathered thereby into a broad survey in order to generalise results to a population of teachers of English and, as a third phase in data collection finished with a qualitative approach in the form of open-ended questions to further interpret the phenomenon.

The method of reasoning was based on triangulation as explained by Bryman and Bell (2003). They suggest that a study that uses the mixed-methods approach actually supports triangulation. Triangulation entails that knowledge is constructed by "using more than one method or source of data in the study of a social phenomenon" (Bryman & Bell, 2003:291). Risjord, Moloney and Dunbar (2001) suggest that quantitative and qualitative findings may corroborate each other and support a more robust conclusion than either source of data could support alone. McEvoy and Richards (2006:71) also support this view and say that "qualitative methods can help to illuminate complex concepts and relationships that are unlikely to be captured by predetermined response categories or standardised quantitative measures". By combining the approaches, complementary perspectives can be obtained, as well as a greater level of detail than can be obtained from using either data source in isolation. The quantitative survey can also help to "identify clear and consistent patterns of practice" (McEvoy & Richards, ibid.), which could be confirmed and elaborated by the findings from open-ended questions. Using both the quantitative and qualitative approaches gave this inquiry a greater sense of balance and perspective. This particular approach required the use of several different methods of collecting data.

3.4 Research methods

Methods of data collection are central to conducting a study and encompass "a range of activities that are aimed at gathering information to answer a number of research questions" (Cresswell, 1998:110).

An approach that enabled the identification of objective facts based on empirical observations was used to collect quantitative data with regard to the main research question, "How do teachers perceive their preparedness in terms of PCK for writing?"

The research design for this study was structured as follows:

a) Literature study regarding what PCK for writing practice constitutes;
b) Analysis of curriculum documents (CAPS) in terms of required PCK – a qualitative approach;
c) Survey research in the form of a questionnaire administered to English FAL teachers aiming to determine their perceived level of preparedness for the PCK requirements of the curriculum for writing – a quantitative approach;

d) In addition, the open-ended questions at the end of the survey were analysed in attempt to substantiate the findings of the survey – a qualitative approach;
e) Triangulation was imposed during the data analysis and interpretation.

As a detailed literature review has already been reported in Chapter 2, the following section serves as point of departure for the study in presenting the analysis of the CAPS document in terms of PCK.

3.5 Document analysis of CAPS in terms of PCK

Many types of materials can yield "insights in qualitative research and these typically are classified as documents" (Savenye & Robinson, 2005:71). With regard to the purpose of the study, it is clear that, firstly, the required PCK needed for the successful delivery of the English curriculum relating to writing needed to be identified. The first important task therefore required an analysis of the official document prescribing the curriculum to be followed. Sprague's (1995:32) definition of documents as "a set of information pertaining to topic, structured for human comprehension, represented by a variety of symbols, stored and handled as a unit" thus supports this document analysis of CAPS as the first logical step.

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) which was introduced in 2013 as an adjustment to what we teach (content) and to a limited extent how we teach (teaching methods) is the national curriculum that governs all public schools in South Africa The Department of Basic Education (2011) explains that, although the CAPS replaced the assessment standards of the National Curriculum Statement (NSC), the content is still based on the NCS. The only major difference in curriculum implementation is that terms like Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards are no longer used – instead the CAPS documents specify the specific content topics (knowledge and skills) that must be mastered (DBE, 2011:7). In other words, the curriculum has reversed changes that have been implemented since 1997 – this time reverting from outcome-based education to content-based education. The CAPS document requires specific subject matter knowledge for teaching towards successful implementation and teachers need to understand the content (specific terminology) as well as have mastered the necessary skill set to facilitate the curriculum effectively. This study aimed to identify the specific PCK for writing that needs to be mastered by teachers according to the curriculum. This PCK is in the form of certain concepts that need to be understood within the context of usage.

According to Bernard and Ryan (2010:191-192), “most qualitative data come in the form of free-flowing texts”. They identify four major types of analysis for documents:

a) the text is segmented into chunks that conform to a set of themes and the themes are analysed quantitatively or qualitatively;
b) the entire text is examined closely for patterns;
c) the text is analysed via utilising a mixed-methods approach such as in ethnographic, decision modelling;
d) the text is segmented into its fundamental components: words. This is the basis of key-word-in-context analysis (KWIC).

In this study, a combination of a) and d) was used. The CAPS document for English FAL grade 4-6 was segmented into chunks, isolating all references to the teaching of writing in the language class. The method used for isolating these chunks followed the suggestion by Bernard and Ryan (2010:192), using the concept of KWIC: “when you search for a word, you see it in context and if you keep searching for the same word, you see it in all of its contexts”. They suggest that the point of departure is to “decide on the form of the word that you search for” (Bernard & Ryan, ibid.). This also includes variations of the word. This method is also advocated by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2011:75) explaining that “when there are specific words of interest that the researchers would like to understand better [with regard to] how they are utilized by participants, KWIC can be a beneficial analysis”. The words identified as filters for the CAPS document were ‘write, writing, written, writer, and wrote’. Each page of the CAPS document was carefully reviewed and all sentences, phrases and paragraphs containing those words were lifted from the text and pasted into a table in a separate document. Each quote was numbered and the page numbers recorded. By means of doing this, all references to the writing section of CAPS were isolated for analysis.

Once identified, these sentences, phrases and paragraphs were segmented into their fundamental components – that is, specific concepts (words) teachers are supposed to be familiar with and to have mastered themselves as part of a well-developed PCK. For example, certain concepts in the following statement need to be understood before the teacher can implement these successfully in the classroom:

“Writing which is appropriately scaffolded using writing frames...” (DBE, 2011:11)
The teacher clearly needs to know what “scaffolding” in writing instruction entails, as well as to understand what “writing frames” are and how they can be used effectively in the teaching

of writing. This process was used for every reference to writing in the CAPS document to identify the concepts necessary for PCK.

The document was filtered and all references containing the key words “write, writing, written, writer, and wrote” were extracted. The mechanism used for this was the “Search” function in Adobe Acrobat Reader – a common program used in reading PDF documents. When a word, for example “write”, is being searched in the program, it takes the researcher to the first reference to the word. Upon pressing Enter, it automatically jumps to the next reference to the word in the document. By means of this method I extracted all relevant references from the CAPS document to be analysed. Then, each reference was analysed and viewed as separate words. With the guidance of the study leader, ensuring validity of the method, only terminology acting as PCK were extracted from the references and placed in a new column. For example, the use of the word ‘write’ in the preamble to the curriculum would not be regarded as a token for PCK. A total of 369 references to PCK (including double entries) for writing were identified in the CAPS English FAL. These results are included in Addendum B. For the purposes of this thesis, a teacher has to possess a well-developed PCK of all these concepts in order to teach writing successfully.

As it was considered very unreasonable and arduous to expect participants to answer a questionnaire consisting of all identified items, the suggestion by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2008:594) – to use Word Count as an effect tool to analyse documents – was followed in order to a) delete all double entries, and b) to minimise the number of items, but still have sound logic for why certain items were chosen. Addendum C provides a visual presentation of the results. Leech and Onwuegbuzie argue that “although the use of word count is not always justified, there are at least three reasons for counting in qualitative data analysis: (a) to identify patterns more easily, (b) to verify a hypothesis, and (c) to maintain analytic integrity” (2011:76).

The word count technique entails that the frequency of use of a target word can be analysed to understand the meaning people ascribe to a specific word. Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2008:594) state that “the basic assumption underlying the word count procedure is that the more frequently a word is used, the more important the word is for the person”. This is also advocated by Carley (1993). Proponents of word count procedures contend that it is more precise – and thus more meaningful—for qualitative researchers to specify the exact count rather than using terms such as “many,” “most,” “frequently,” “several,” “always,” and “never,” which essentially are quantitative (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008:594). Leech and Onwuegbuzie (ibid.) warn, however, that “it should be noted that word count can lead to

misleading interpretations being made. In particular, word count can lead to a word being decontextualised such that it is not meaningful". It is also noteworthy that a word that is used more frequently than another word does not necessarily imply that it is more important. Aiming to avoid the danger of misinterpreting the importance of particular terminology, the word count technique was combined with a validation technique suggested by Creswell (2003:169): peer debriefing, which "enhance[d] the accuracy of the account". Creswell explains that this process involves locating a person – for this study it was the study leader and other experts in the field - who reviewed and asked questions about the qualitative study (identification of PCK items to be used in the questionnaire) ensuring that the PCK terminology represented in the questionnaire accurately reflected the requirements for writing education in CAPS. After we agreed on the final items, the survey (questionnaire) was administered to determine teachers' perceived preparedness to teach these concepts in the classroom.

3.6 Survey

In the preceding section, the document analysis of the CAPS was discussed and how specific PCK were lifted from the text to serve as items in the survey were explained. The survey was in the form of a questionnaire administered to teachers of English FAL in the intermediate phase and it aimed to determine their attitudes toward their preparedness for PCK necessary for effective teaching of the writing curriculum. The questionnaire concluded with two open-ended questions related to the same topic as the preceding questions in order to substantiate the quantitative data, while aiming to gain further insight into the phenomenon.

Punch (2003:27) suggests that the researcher who uses a survey needs to know the objectives of the survey before a survey is conducted, and to communicate this clearly in "statements, at a reasonably high level of generality and abstraction, of what the survey is trying to find out. They are the overall purposes or aims of the inquiry. They may be encapsulated in one statement, or they may require several statements". Therefore, the objective of the current survey was to investigate the level of perceived preparedness of teachers' perceptions towards the PCK necessary to teach the writing curriculum successfully.

The data collection tool for this survey took the form of Likert-type questionnaire. In his article, *Using Likert Scales in L2 Research*, Busch (1993:735) states that "Likert-type scales are frequently employed in language learning research" and explains that it is a very popular and effective method to measure subjects' attitudes towards a social issue. Babbie (2004:169) explains that the Likert scale is a composite measure developed by Rensis Likert (1932) in an

attempt to “improve the levels of measurement in social research through the use of standardised response categories in survey questionnaires to determine relative intensity of different items”. Other researchers also advocate the use of this method when conducting social research in which there is a need to isolate a particular attribute to be measured (Busch, 1993; DeVellis, 1991; Nunnally, 1978). Bertram (2014:2) states that the Likert scale constitutes “a psychometric response scale primarily used in questionnaires to obtain participant’s preferences or degree of agreement with a statement or set of statements”. He explains further that it is a “non-comparative scaling technique and are unidimensional (only measuring a single trait) in nature”.

In support of the rationale for using the Likert scale as research method in this study, I refer to Busch (1993:735) who states that many “second language teachers and researchers make use of Likert-type scales when conducting surveys of opinions, beliefs, and attitudes in needs analyses, teacher/student evaluation and beliefs about language learning”. Babbie (2004:169) corroborates this by stating that it is “one of the most commonly used formats in contemporary questionnaire design”. The identified PCK for writing served as the basis for the items of the survey. Teachers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with given statements by way of a scale and their attitudes toward their perceived preparedness were determined thereby.

Fowler and Cosenza (2009:375) explain that when conducting survey research, it is necessary to understand that the quality of the data from a survey depends on different variables, such as the size and representativeness of the sample from which data are collected, the techniques used in collecting data, the quality of the interviewing, whether interviewers are used, and the extent to which the questions provide good measures. It is very important to thoroughly evaluate the “total survey design” which refers to “the perspective of looking at all sources of error, when making survey decisions” (Fowler & Cosenza, ibid.). Methodologists such as Groves et al. (2004) and Weisberg (2005) also advocate this idea. The survey for this study was conducted as an electronic questionnaire administered via email, causing the elimination of variables such as “the quality of the interviewing” and “if interviewers are used” that might have influenced the outcome. The quality of data for this study relied primarily on the quality of the items in the questionnaire. Babbie (2004:246) makes it clear that one of the errors that have the greatest influence on survey outcome is the design of survey questions and states that “the broad proliferation of unclear and ambiguous questions in surveys makes the point worth emphasising”. He implies that the questionnaire items should be precise so that the respondent knows exactly what the researcher is asking. Therefore, it is paramount that good question items are formulated so that answers that are produced will be reliable and

valid measures of the attribute aimed to be described. To ensure that a good measurement process was followed, the following four basic characteristics of good questions and answers described by Fowler and Cosenza (2009:376) were adhered to:

1) Questions need to be consistently understood.
2) Respondents need to have access to the information required to answer the questions.
3) The way in which respondents are asked to answer the question must provide an appropriate way to report what they have to say.
4) Respondents must be willing to provide the answers called for in the questions.

After the questionnaire was designed, it was administered to three colleagues to pilot its effectiveness. The questionnaire and cover letter with instructions were emailed to the teachers to complete as thoroughly as possible. They completed the survey and I received the data via SurveyMonkey. Afterwards, I discussed the clarity of the questions with them and they claimed that the questions were easy to understand and that they knew exactly what was being asked of them. They found the digital format easy to navigate and they did not have any problem completing the whole survey.

This survey produced quantitative as well as qualitative data and the following section addresses the trustworthiness of the data.

3.7 Trustworthiness of data

A crucial aspect of qualitative research, in respect of its usefulness and the integrity of the findings, is trustworthiness - it speaks to the “truth value” and the “transparency of the conduct of the study” (Connelly, 2016:435). Researchers should therefore establish the procedures (criteria) necessary for the study to be considered worthy of consideration if they want the readers of their work to view it as “trustworthy”. Guba (1981:79-80) explains that four major concerns related to trustworthiness have evolved, and it is to these concerns that the criteria must speak. The concerns are:

1. *Truth value*: How can one establish confidence in the "truth" of the findings of a particular inquiry for the subjects (respondents) with which and the context in which the inquiry was carried out?

2. *Applicability*: How can one determine the degree to which the findings of a particular inquiry may have applicability in other contexts or with other subjects (respondents)?
3. *Consistency*: How can one determine whether the findings of an inquiry would be consistently repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the same (or similar) subjects (respondents) in the same (or similar) context?
4. *Neutrality*: How can one establish the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are a function solely of subjects (respondents) and conditions of the inquiry and not of the biases, motivations, interests, perspectives, and so on of the inquirer?

The methods used by quantitative and qualitative researchers to address the concerns mentioned above and establish trustworthiness differ in many ways. The current study used the mixed-methods approach; the trustworthiness of the quantitative and qualitative data of the study will be discussed in the following sections.

3.7.1 Evaluating the truth value

The truth value of research outcomes is stronger when both data and design are valid. In order to ensure that the data in this study is the "truth", credibility of qualitative data, and internal validity of quantitative data were established.

3.7.1.1 Credibility

Ensuring credibility by examining the data, data analysis, and conclusions to see whether or not the study is correct and accurate is one method used by qualitative researchers to establish trustworthiness. Connelly (2016:435) describes credibility as "the confidence in the truth of the study" and identifies techniques used by researchers to establish credibility: "prolonged engagement with participants, persistent observation if appropriate to the study, peer-debriefing, member-checking, and reflective journaling". Ensuring credibility is therefore a method that involves researchers in undertaking activities that increase probability so that there will be trustworthy findings. In respect of ensuring internal consistency, Guba (1981:84) states:

> Inquiry can be affected by factor patternings, which produce effects of non-interpretability, to take account of which we, while doing (during) the study, use

> prolonged engagement at a research site, persistent observation, and peer debriefing, do triangulation, collect referential adequacy materials, and do member checks, and after completing the study, establish structural corroboration or coherence, establish referential adequacy, and do member checks, in the hope that these actions will lead to credibility, and produce findings that are plausible.

During the design of the questionnaire, I worked in collaboration with my supervisor to ensure the credibility of the items. We carefully analysed the content of each question to ensure its correlation with the construct – an evaluation of teachers' perceived preparedness – in question. We also triangulated the different sections of the questionnaire by adding an open-ended question, thereby, "collecting data from a variety of perspectives, using a variety of methods, and drawing upon a variety of sources so that an inquirer's predilections are tested as strenuously as possible" (Guba, 1981:87).

3.7.1.2 Internal validity

In contrast to methods used by qualitative researchers to establish credibility, quantitative researchers use methods focused on internal validity to establish trustworthiness. Internal validity is concerned with the accuracy of the questionnaire and refers to "the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration" (Babbie, 2004:143). Fowler and Cosenza (2009:376) explain that validity is, in turn, "the extent to which answers correspond to some hypothetical 'true value' of what we are trying to describe or measure". Stated differently, internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept and it follows that internal consistency should be determined before a test can be used for research. This means that quantitative researchers evaluate trustworthiness by how well the threats to internal validity have been controlled, and the validity of the instruments and measurements used in a study.

I worked in collaboration with my supervisor to ensure that each item correlated with the construct under investigation, that is, teachers' perceived preparedness for PCK terminology in the CAPS document.

3.7.2 Evaluating the applicability

Applicability is concerned with whether the method and findings of the research study could be applied in other settings. If so, the method and findings would be more trustworthy. The qualitative data were analysed for transferability and the quantitative data for external validity.

3.7.2.1 Transferability

In qualitative studies, transferability refers to applying the research results to other contexts and settings. Connelly (2016:436) explains that qualitative researchers "focus on the informants and their story without saying this is everyone's story" and support the study's transferability with "a rich, detailed description of the context, location, and people studied, and by being transparent about analysis and trustworthiness". The aim is to determine whether the results of the study could be generalised to other contexts, and therefore, as Guba (1981:80) states, the inquiry should be conducted "in ways that make chronological and situational variations irrelevant to the findings. If that condition can be met, the findings obviously will have relevance in any context."

The only requirement for the participants in this study was that they had to be current teachers of English FAL in the intermediate phase in a South African public school. By implication they would follow the CAPS curriculum. This means that "chronological and situational variations" in respect of each participant's "story" should be irrelevant to the outcome of the study – the location of their schools, their personal background, and the contexts of their situations should not influence the applicability of the data to teachers in different situations. Shenton (2004:69) however notes that this might not be easy to demonstrate in qualitative research: "Since the findings of a qualitative project are specific to a small number of particular environments and individuals, it is impossible to demonstrate that the findings and conclusions are applicable to other situations and populations." Stated differently, it is therefore understood that the results of a qualitative study should be viewed within the context of the particular sample population in which the fieldwork was carried out. In order to assess the extent to which findings may be true of people in other settings, "similar projects employing the same methods but conducted in different environments could well be of great value" (Shenton, 2004:70).

It should be noted that the questionnaire was administered only to teachers in the Western Cape, therefore it would not be accurate to generalise their perceived preparedness for the PCK in the writing curriculum to the views of all teachers in South Africa. I agree with Shenton's

suggestion (2004:70) – similar studies employing the same methods, conducted in different regions of South Africa, could be of great value.

3.7.2.2 External validity

In contrast to relying on transferability, quantitative researchers use external validity as the method to establish trustworthiness. External validity refers to "the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016:253). This statement implies that, if the data are trustworthy, the results of the study could be shown to apply to a wider population. It is therefore crucial for quantitative researchers to examine the sampling technique to determine the trustworthiness of a study (Krefting, 1991:216).

I designed the questionnaire in collaboration with my supervisor to ensure that the items were not context-specific. The aim was to create a questionnaire that could be answered by any teacher of English FAL as I aimed to determine their perceived preparedness for the mandatory school curriculum, regardless of their specific situation.

3.7.3 Evaluating the consistency

The consistency of data refers to whether the findings of an inquiry would be consistently repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the similar subjects in a similar context. An analysis of dependability for the qualitative data and reliability for the quantitative data were done to ensure consistency in this study.

3.7.3.1 Dependability

In qualitative research, dependability is used to determine a study's consistency. This refers to "the stability of the data over time and over the conditions of the study. It is similar to reliability in quantitative research, but with the understanding [that] stability of conditions depends on the nature of the study" (Connelly, 2016:435). Connelly suggests that procedures for dependability include maintenance of an audit trail of process logs and peer-debriefings with a colleague. Krefting (1991:216) states:

> [T]he key to qualitative work is to learn from the informants rather than control for them. Moreover, instruments that are assessed for consistency in qualitative research are the researcher and the informants, both of whom vary greatly within the research project.

This implies that qualitative research places much emphasis on the uniqueness of the human situation and it follows that measures should be followed to ensure consistency of the research method and the data of the study.

The qualitative data of this study were extrapolated from an open-ended question completed by teachers at the end of the survey. I never came into contact with the participants and the questions were designed to gain insight into their perceived preparedness, rather than exercising “control” over them. I did not maintain an audit trail, but I frequently conferred with my supervisor during the interpretation of the data to ensure that I was consistent in my analysis.

3.7.3.2 Reliability

Evaluating quantitative data for consistency refers to ensuring reliability. Krefting (1991:216) explains that “inherent in the goal of reliability is the value of repeatability, that replication of the testing procedures does not alter the findings”. Stated differently, it is the extent to which repeated administration of a measure will provide the same data or the extent to which a measure administered once, but by different people, produces equivalent results. Nunnally (1978:191) explains that “to the extent to which measurement error is slight, a measure is said to be reliable”. This means that the same data could be collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon. Reliability is used here in the “classic psychometric of the extent to which answers are consistent – when the state of being described is consistent, the answers are consistent as well” (Fowler & Cosenza, 2009:376). The “true value” refers to the Coefficient Alpha, coined by Lee Cronbach (1951), which is a function of the number of items in a test; the average covariance between item-pairs; and the variance of the total score. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha will generally increase as the intercorrelations among test items increase, and is thus known as an internal consistency estimate of reliability of test scores: “The major use of reliability coefficients is in communicating the extent to which the results obtained from a measurement method are repeatable” (Nunnally, 1978:237) – the higher the Coefficient Alpha score, the higher the validity of the test.

The questionnaire was submitted for statistical analysis by Professor Martin Kidd at the University of Stellenbosch. He emphasised that this questionnaire was not designed to measure a psychometric construct, and the items in the questionnaire therefore were not analysed as a composite score of teachers' preparedness for the PCK terminology in the writing curriculum. Instead, each item had to be analysed and interpreted in its own right as it pertained to teachers' perceived preparedness for a specific section of the curriculum. The aim of the study was to establish whether teachers feel prepared on unprepared for teaching the writing curriculum. An analysis of the coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was therefore not applicable to this questionnaire.

This served as a point of departure in evaluating the quality of the questionnaire before they were used in the research project. The questionnaire was then piloted and peer-reviewed in order to refine the items and produce reliable results.

3.7.4 Evaluating the neutrality

Neutrality implies that the findings of a study are free of bias or are separated from the perspectives, background, and position of the researcher. In qualitative and quantitative research neutrality is relative, because no researcher can be completely objective in either the design of a study or interpretation of the data. To establish relative neutrality, emphasis was placed on confirmability of the qualitative data and objectivity of the quantitative data.

3.7.4.1 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the neutrality of the findings of a study – "the degree to which the findings are a function solely of the informants and conditions of the research and not of other biases, motivations, and perspectives" (Krefting, 1991:216). In respect of a research project, being objective implies that the instruments used for data collection should not be influenced by the personal feelings or opinions of the researcher. Shenton (2004:72) recognises the difficulty of ensuring objectivity in research; however, "as tests and questionnaires are designed by humans, the intrusion of the researcher's biases is inevitable". This implies that necessary steps should be taken to ensure, as far as possible, that the study's findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the study's participants, rather than the preferences of the researcher. In terms of the qualitative components of this project, Connelly (2016:435) suggests the following strategies for ensuring objectivity:

> Qualitative researchers keep detailed notes of all their decisions and their analysis as it progresses. In some studies, these notes are reviewed by a colleague; in other studies, they may be discussed in peer-debriefing sessions with a respected qualitative researcher. These discussions prevent biases from only one person's perspective on the research.

In this study, constant oversight and guidance from my supervisor helped prevent biases from my perspective.

3.7.4.2 Objectivity

Analysing quantitative data refers to objectivity. Guba (1981:81) suggests that objectivity is presumably guaranteed by methodology: "If the methods are explicated, open to public scrutiny, replicable, and at least one step removed from direct investigator-subject contact, then objectivity is assured (that is, the biases of the investigator are effectively screened out)".

For the quantitative data of this study, objectivity was obtained by using statistical methods, thereby eliminating possible biases from my perspective in the analysis of the findings. The methods used in this study were scrutinised by my supervisor. This ensured that my biases were screened out.

3.8 Sampling and target population

Sampling is another consideration that influences the overall planning of a study. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:100) explain that many factors such as expense, time, and accessibility frequently may prevent researchers from gaining information from the whole population and they, therefore, "often need to be able to obtain data from a smaller group or subset of the total population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population (however defined) under study". This smaller group or subset is the sample. The use of carefully and purposefully selected participants in a case study allows the researcher to "gain a great deal of information about issues of central importance to the research from relatively small samples or numbers of participants" (Cohen et al., 2007:115). The sample for this study was purposeful in nature, meaning that specific participants were selected because they displayed a specific characteristic that best addressed the research

questions under investigation. The sample for this study was selected according to the following criteria which guided the selection of participants:

- They had to be current Intermediate Phase teachers of English FAL;
- They had to be familiar with the prescriptions in the national curriculum (CAPS) to teach writing.

No other limitations influenced the selection of participants, although the study made use of convenience sampling in the Cape Winelands district. The sampling took into account an appropriate range of representative socio-economic statuses. Even though stating years of experience had no influence on the selection of the sample, it was included as a field in the questionnaire to see whether experience correlated with the participants' level of perceived preparedness. There was no limit to the number of participating teachers, but it is necessary to emphasise that participation in the group that met the requirements of purposeful sampling was voluntary. The participants were also assured of the confidentiality of their identities, their comments as participants, the identity of the school and the school district.

Furthermore, as teachers were the participants in the research, ethical considerations of the study had to be considered in collaboration with the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) from whom permission was requested to conduct research involving its teachers.

3.9 The research site

The schools selected for the study are all situated in the education districts of the Western Cape Education Department in the Western Cape. The reason for these choices was that I am familiar with the areas and know many teachers in these regions. The questionnaire was administered to as many schools in these regions as possible to gather data for analysis from a large number of English FAL ISP teachers.

3.10 Access to the research site

After official written permission to proceed with the study was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department on 12 March 2015 (see Addendum A), various school principals were approached in March 2016 for permission to do the research with the English FAL Intermediate Phase teachers. The principals who confirmed their cooperation allowed the online questionnaire to be administered to their teachers. The principals were not asked to

identify teachers or the name of the school at any stage of the research. The decision about participation in the study was entirely in the hands of the teachers.

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the research design and methodology used in this study. The discussion provided details of the mixed-methods approach which comprised a qualitative and a qualitative research design. The discussion extended to population, sampling, data collection methods, trustworthiness of the data, and data analysis. The ethical principles that were considered during the study have also been discussed.

The next chapter presents the findings of the research, and the analysis and interpretation thereof.

Chapter 4: Data analysis

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the survey are presented and analysed according to the framework presented in preceding chapters. The analyses draw attention to commonalities and differences in the data relating to teachers' years of experience, their perceived preparedness for PCK terminology identified in the CAPS for writing education and suggestions for possible improvement and development of the writing curriculum in English FAL. The results produced by the survey are quantitative and qualitative in nature. Both sets of data will be analysed and used to triangulate the results.

This study was limited to teachers of English FAL in the intermediate phase and relied on as many responses as possible. All Afrikaans, Xhosa and dual-medium schools were included but English schools were excluded because they offer English as a Home Language and not as an Additional Language. The email addresses of all Afrikaans, isiXhosa and dual-medium primary schools in the Western Cape were retrieved from the website of the Department of Basic Education and the web link to an online questionnaire was distributed via email;, the onus to forward the link to their English FAL teachers therefore was on the principals. This was the first complication in the process of data collection: there was no guarantee that the principals would forward the link to their teachers. The success of the survey furthermore relied on the teachers' ability to access the internet and to be acquainted with using email and web links. Another complicating factor worth mentioning is that the principals and/or teachers could have been too busy or could have forgotten to complete the questionnaire. These factors contributed to a lower response rate than desired. A total of 1088 schools were contacted with a request for their English FAL teachers to respond. Assuming that each school has a minimum of one English FAL teacher, there was a possibility of 1088 responses. I received 64 automatic response emails stating that the schools' email addresses no longer exist. Thus, I was left with 1024 possible responses. Unfortunately, only 115 responses were recorded, which is just more than 10%. It is worth noting that the schools that were approached to participate in this study are schools ranging over the entire socio-economic spectrum. Many rural schools were contacted as well as schools in urban areas – many urban schools fall in the ex-Model C school category and are usually better-resourced compared to schools in rural areas. A lack of resources to participate in this study possibly had a significant effect on the response rate. However, a possible conclusion could be that, if well-resourced schools had difficulties with the curriculum and felt unprepared in terms of certain PCK concepts, it would

seem logical that teachers in under-resourced schools would feel even more unprepared for the demands of the curriculum.

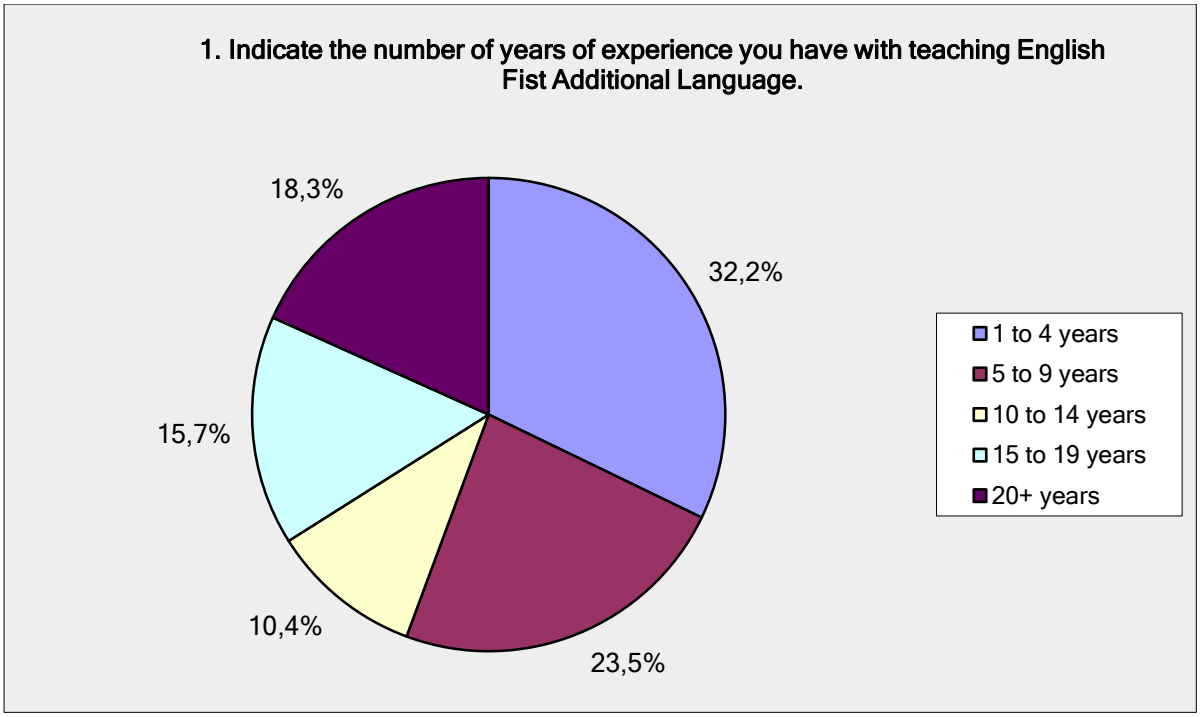
The responses were entered into a data file and analysed using the computer software program known as, SurveyMonkey. Further statistical analyses were done by the statistics department of the University of Stellenbosch under supervision of Professor M. Kidd to highlight possible correlations between variables and identify patterns that could emerge from the data.

In the section that follows, I first discuss the results of the study, and follow this with an interpretation of these results.

4.2 Question 1

The first question of the survey was the only independent variable to be taken into account. Participants were asked to indicate their number of years of experience in teaching English First Additional Language in the intermediate phase. A summary of the results is presented in the graph on the next page (Figure 4.1).

The experience levels of the participants in the study were well-balanced. Of the 115 participants 37 are relatively inexperienced having only one to four years of teaching English FAL experience, 39 have a moderate amount of experience between with five and fifteen years, and 39 could be considered as being very experienced having taught for more than fifteen years. This distribution of years of experience implies that the survey should present balanced findings because the results would represent a range of teaching experiences – the results would not be biased toward teachers of a particular level of experience. Having a well-balanced sample would also mean that a better analysis may be done in respect of possible trends in groups with different levels of experience and their perceived preparedness.



1. Indicate the number of years of experience you have with teaching English Fist Additional Language.		
Answer Options	**Response Percent**	**Response Count**
1 to 4 years	32.2%	37
5 to 9 years	23.5%	27
10 to 14 years	10.4%	12
15 to 19 years	15.7%	18
20+ years	18.3%	21
	answered question	115
	skipped question	0

Figure 4.1: Teachers' experience in years of teaching English First Additional Language

4.3 Question 2

The second part of the survey consisted of ten multiple choice questions on the meaning of terminology. These questions required that teachers choose the definition or description most suited to particular terms. The decision to include particular terminology in the multiple choice questions was based on the results from the original key-word-in-context search of the CAPS (see Addendum C). Only the PCK terminology that occurred most frequently was considered for the questionnaire. The summary of the responses can be viewed in Addendum D, and the questions (concepts) that most teachers answered incorrectly are discussed in more detail

next. If most teachers got the answers wrong, it presumably indicates that these teachers felt unprepared for the specific PCK.

It could be argued that all the terminology could be associated with the question in some way or another, but the questions were deliberately designed and piloted so that one answer would be more suitable than the others. Moreover, some answers clearly stood out as least suitable, yet many teachers selected them as their first choice. For example, the concept 'editing' is defined in CAPS as "the process of drafting and redrafting a text, including correcting grammatical usage, punctuation and spelling errors and checking writing for coherence of ideas and cohesion of structure; in media, editing involves the construction, selection and lay-out of texts" (DBE, 2011:112). Against this background, 'redrafting' refers therefore to 'drafting again' after all corrections have been made in order to produce a better version of the first draft. The key answer to the question "Which of the following words would be the most accurate association with 'editing'?" would be 'revision' and 60% of the participants made that association. Interestingly, 40% of the participants rather associated 'redrafting' with 'colloquialisms', 'relevant sources', 'mode' and 'emotive words'.

'Scaffolding' is another concept often used in the CAPS for writing (DBE, 2011:13). Scaffolding allows the teacher to help students' transition from assisted tasks to independent performances. Suan and Sulaiman (2011:939) explain it as a

> step-by-step process that provides the learner with sufficient guidance until the process is learned, and then gradually removes the supports in order to transfer the responsibility for completing the task to the student. The teacher must provide students with the optimal amount of support necessary to complete the task, and then progressively decrease the level of assistance until the student becomes capable of completing the activity independently.

The answer best suited to the question "Which of the following words would be the most accurate association with ''scaffolding'?" clearly is 'guided writing' for it "involves individuals or small groups of children writing a range of text types after the teacher has provided mini-lessons on aspects of writing such as format, punctuation, grammar or spelling" (DBE, 2011:113), yet only 50.6% of the participants recognised that association and 49.4% selected concepts such as 'text types', 'drawing conclusions', brainstorm' and 'feedback', which are much less suitable. This trend can be observed throughout the responses which allows for some interpretation to be made. The main aim of this question was not to see how many

participants could supply correct answers, but rather to raise concern about the number of participants who chose less obvious answers. Many teachers answered the questions correctly, but consideration of the percentage of teachers who answered the topics incorrectly indicates a definite lack in preparedness for the following concepts: scaffolding (49.4%), format (57.6%), audience (61.2%), redrafting (30%), revision (40%), and appropriacy (51.8%). Reasons for this phenomenon cannot be extrapolated from the data in this study and further investigation is advocated. What the data show indeed is that there is a large number of teachers who are either unfamiliar with the concepts or do not have the knowledge and/or skills to distinguish one concept from another, and therefore cannot be seen as well-prepared teachers of writing in the English FAL classroom.

The following section in the questionnaire focuses on teachers' attitudes toward their perceived preparedness for writing concepts as required in the CAPS document.

4.4 Question 3

In this section of the questionnaire, teachers had to indicate their perceived level of preparedness for a list of terminology identified in the CAPS for writing instruction. Teachers had to indicate their level of perceived preparedness on a five-point Likert scale. If teachers decided that their level of confidence for a specific concept was 'Neutral', the teacher would be regarded as being unprepared for the PCK of the concept, because, if a teacher doubts whether he/she is confident, I would argue that the teacher is not confident and therefore not prepared for that particular aspect of the curriculum. The results for Planning, the first part of the writing process, are presented in Addendum E. This section of the questionnaire was sorted in ascending order to indicate teachers' perceived preparedness for the PCK.

4.4.1 Topic 1: Planning activities for extensive writing

As pointed out in Chapter 2 (section 2.9.3), planning activities are an essential part of the writing process, not only for guiding students, but also for motivating students to want to write. It follows that a teacher of writing should be especially confident of this aspect of the writing instruction to inspire the students to explore the topic in various ways. Yet, as can be seen in Addendum D, it seems to not be the case. Almost a quarter of participants who completed this section (24.24%) felt a lack of confidence when called upon to structure pre-writing activities in their classrooms. These results align with the data in Addendum E as 25.9% of the teachers

associated 'pre-writing' with something other than 'planning' the writing task. Barnett (1992:18) suggests that popular first language pre-writing techniques such as "journal writing, meditating, analogy making, and freewriting (brainstorming on paper)" are equally viable for second language writers. The function of doing pre-writing activities is in acting as the basis on which the first draft of the writing task is structured. If the teacher of writing instruction does not feel confident to do pre-writing in the classroom and cannot teach students the important skills associated with it, an essential part of the writing process is not developed. It then makes sense that so many teachers do not feel confident about using planning strategies such as flow charts (24.24%) and writing frames (28.79%).

The graph below (Figure 4.2) shows the rating average of teacher responses indicating their perceived level of confidence for the terminology associated with the planning phase of the writing process. The rating was done on a Likert scale of 1 – 5, with 1 indicating 'Totally not confident' and 5 'Totally confident'.

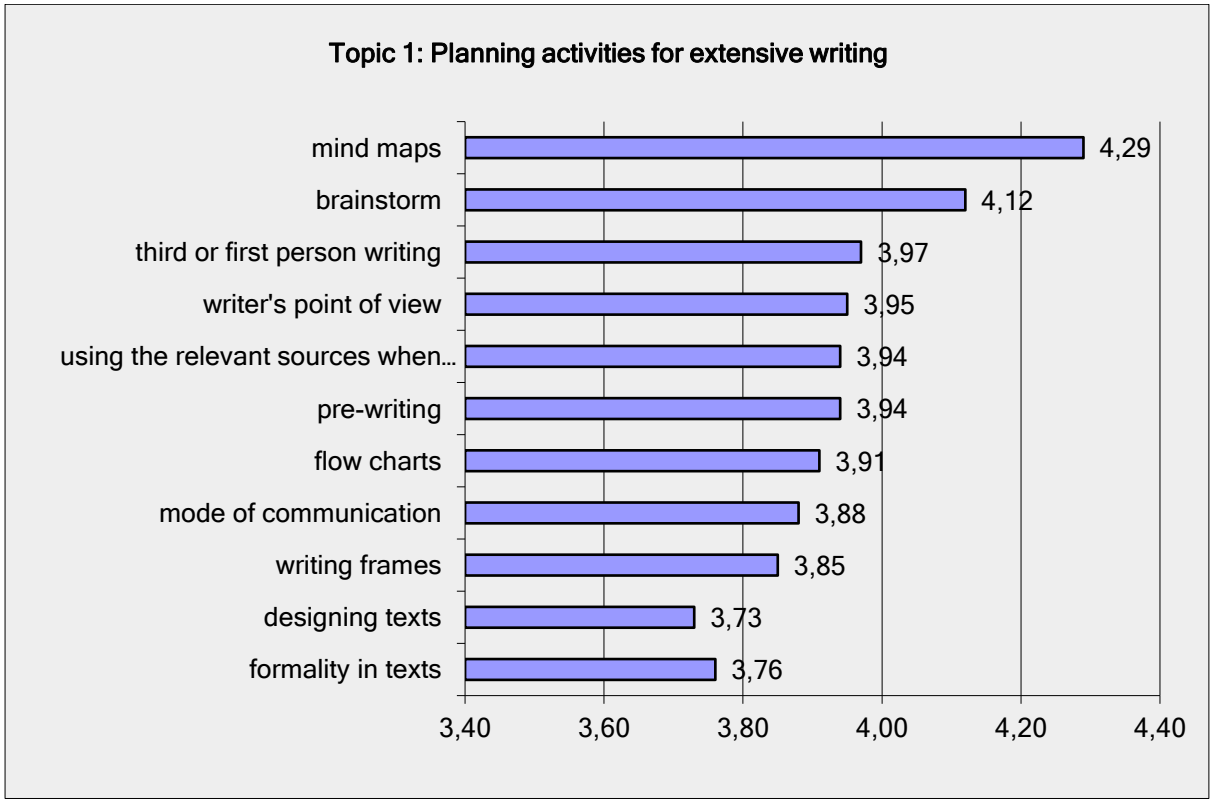


Figure 4.2: The rated average of teacher responses indicating perceived level of confidence for the terminology associated with the planning phase

It is clear from the graph that mind maps received the highest rating average of 4.29. This indicates that teachers have the most confidence (89.93%) in using mind maps for planning.

I would argue, however, that teachers should beware of becoming stagnant in their teaching, that is, by encouraging the same strategy for pre-writing in every lesson, because not all students may think and plan in the same way. At the pre-writing stage, students find ideas and begin to organise them. Many strategies for planning are available and teachers should strive to have knowledge of strategies to cater to all student needs. According to Barnett (1992:18), teachers should aim to answer the following question: “How can we encourage our students to act like skilled writers?” and I would like to argue that it cannot be done by focusing on one or two teaching strategies only.

Another noteworthy phenomenon is that the two concepts that teachers feel least confident to teach are of utmost importance to writing instruction – more than 30% of teachers do not feel confident about teaching for designing texts and for formality in texts. Writing should be appropriate for the intended audience and, should therefore be designed explicitly to achieve its purpose. For example, the format, word choice, complexity of sentences, and length of a written communication to a friend will not be the same as in a written letter to a professional organisation or person of high status in the community. The level of formality of written language should correspond with the intended audience and the purpose of the writing. Students should be taught how to differentiate between and design informal texts and formal texts. Informal language is very personal and self-expressive, and often includes slang and colloquialisms. It is often used as the language of conversation and in narratives, but it is inappropriate for academic writing. Formal language, to the contrary, is appropriate for academic texts and professional settings. Students should be taught how and when to use informal and formal language appropriately and how text should be designed for its intended purpose. Text design moreover affects the comprehensibility and purpose of a text. Newman (2007:9) states that “good readers can use a structure strategy approach to comprehend expository text, but only if the text adheres to one of the canonical patterns that they know”. According to Chambliss and Calfee (1987:358), text design either facilitates or inhibits text comprehension and educators may “need guidance in recognizing the structural patterns in textbooks so that those patterns can be taught to students”. Each form of writing has its own structure and attributes making it unique in structure and purpose and therefore has a unique design. Having 30.30% of teachers lacking confidence in teaching such a basic necessity for writing instruction is cause for concern. This also ties in with the 31.82% of teachers who do not feel confident to teach formality in texts which, by definition, refers to complying with the requirements for a specific written text.

In conclusion, it seems clear that teachers do not feel confident about all aspects of the planning section for writing instruction and that further training or intervention is required to prepare teachers, especially for fundamental concepts in writing instruction.

4.4.2 Topic 2: Drafting and Structuring

Looking at the data for Drafting and Structuring (Addendum F), an interesting pattern seems to emerge. The graph below presents a visual summary of teachers' perceived preparedness for terminology associated with drafting and structuring.

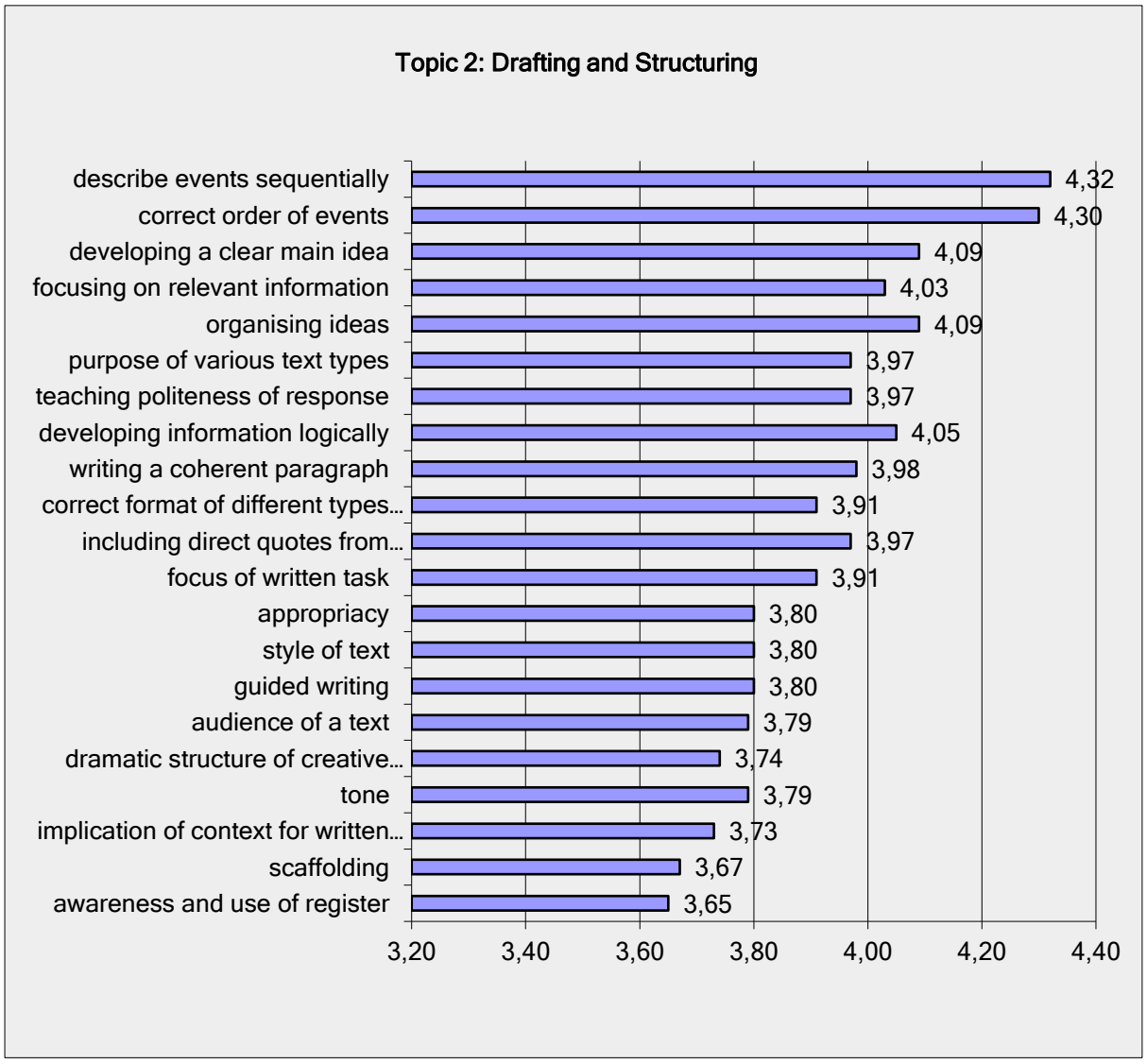


Figure 4.3: Perceived preparedness for terminology associated with Drafting and Structuring

As seen in the graph and the data in Addendum C, the topics most teachers seem to feel confident to teach (75% and above) are the following:

- writing a coherent paragraph,
- developing information logically,
- teaching politeness of response,
- purpose of various text types,
- organising ideas,
- focusing on relevant information,
- developing a clear main idea,
- correct order of events,
- describe events sequentially.

With the exception of “teaching politeness of response”, these topics seem to focus more on the concrete skills of writing practice such as a coherent paragraph, writing logically, organising ideas, correct order, a clear main idea and relevant information. These skills are obviously of utmost importance to being an effective writer, especially in respect of writing transactional texts, but, as identified from the data, many teachers did not feel equally prepared for other key skills of writing instruction. More than 25% of teachers did not feel confident to teach important concepts like awareness and use of register, implication of context for written task, tone, dramatic structure of creative writing, audience of a text, style of text, appropriacy, and focus of the written task. In analysing these concepts, it follows that the focus of these concepts is more on abstract, rather than concrete skills of writing. For example, it might be easier to teach students how to describe events sequentially, or how to focus on relevant information than to teach them to use the correct tone in their writing; awareness and use of register; or recognising the implications of their writing task. These concepts seem to pertain to a higher cognitive level of thinking and planning, and a lack of confidence does not bode well for the teaching of these aspects. An effective teacher of writing should understand that writing instruction is not just about teaching concrete skills of writing such as paragraphing and organising. An effective teacher of writing should feel equally confident to teach the “what”, the “why” and the “how” of a writing task. Students need to be taught how abstract concepts such as using the correct register and keeping the audience in mind impact on the success of the writing task.

4.4.3 Topic 3: Revision and Editing

The graph in Figure 4.4 shows the results of teachers' perceived preparedness for the revision and editing phase of the writing process. Addendum G shows the exact data gathered from responses to this question. More than 80% of teachers felt confident to teach the concepts of proofreading and revision. This indicates that they do understand the value of editing and improving the first draft, yet the data in Addendum A show that only 60% of teachers associated 'proofreading' with 'revision'. In addition, only 60% associated 'redrafting' with 'revision'. These conflicting results raise questions about teachers' preparedness for this section of the writing process. An interesting observation is that, although 80.30% of the teachers felt confident to teach the use of concise and clear language in writing, only 68.18% felt confident to teach language conventions. It would make sense that being confident in teaching clear language usage in writing would include being equally confident in teaching speech-like communication, the use of everyday expressions and language conventions in English, as well. Such conflicting data could indicate that teachers were not completely honest when they took the survey, or did not take the questions seriously or that their own language ability is not up to standard because an effective teacher of writing in English should have adequate language abilities and feel completely confident to help students in their learning. Another interesting result is that 80.30% of teachers indicated confidence in teaching revision but only 74.24% felt confident to teach editing. This might indicate that teachers do not fully comprehend the particular concepts – revision and editing cannot be separated because students need to edit their drafts to improve their writing before handing in the revised version. There should not be a difference between teachers' levels of confidence with regard to revision and editing. It is also of concern that more than a quarter of the teachers did not feel confident to develop key concepts regarding students' reasoning abilities such as drawing conclusions (25.76%), expressions of cause and effect (30.30%) and making judgements (37.88%)., Only 59.09% of teachers moreover felt prepared to teach colloquialisms. This result ties in with the 59.09% of teachers who indicated lack of confidence in teaching the appropriate use of register in written tasks. All of these relate to argumentative writing and academic language proficiency and provide an indication of a gap between what teachers know and what they need to know for writing instruction. The findings of the question regarding text types supports this notion: teachers felt very comfortable with teaching the sequence of events (the typical narrative structure) – for example, the descriptive essay, email / SMS, newspaper article, review (book, story or film) all have teachers' perceived preparedness percentages of 74.19%, compared to 53.23% for expressing and explaining opinion, and the official letter. This lack of confidence means that they may become stuck with teaching narrative writing rather than

argumentative or expository writing, because they feel more prepared, and comfortable, teaching certain genres.

Another interesting observation involves a comparison between the average percentages regarding the perceived preparedness of teachers for the different stages of the writing process. A declining pattern is observed between planning activities for extensive writing (77.96%), drafting and structuring (73.52%), and revision and editing (71.69%). Presenting has a higher percentage of 75%. In the light of the process approach in writing education and the argument presented for the importance of revising and editing in this approach (see section 2.9.2), it is concerning to see that *revising and editing*, which should be the main focus in the process approach to teaching writing, is the stage for which teachers feel the greatest lack of confidence.

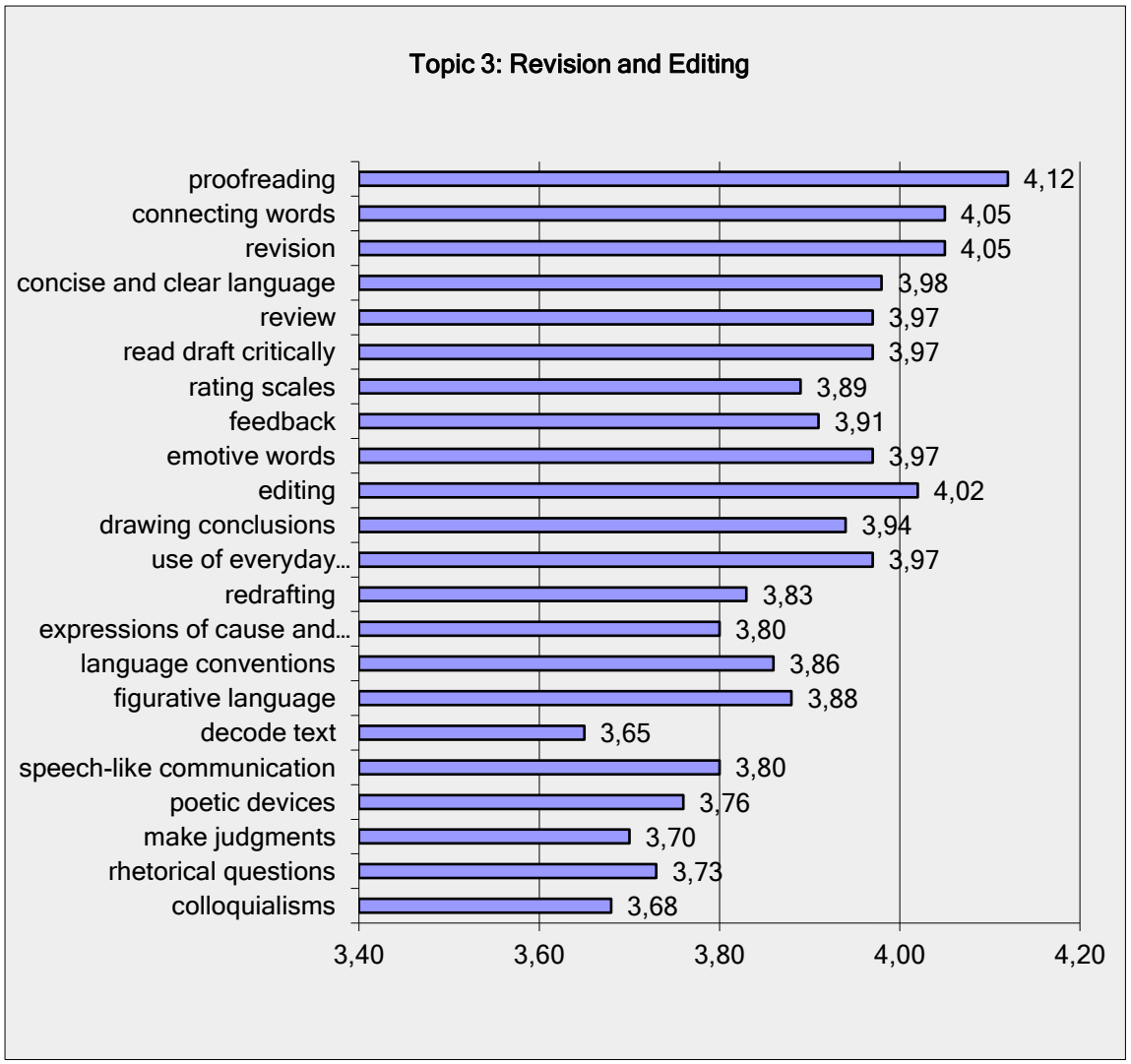


Figure 4.4: Teachers' perceived preparedness for the revision and editing phase of the writing process

4.4.4 Topic 4: Presenting

The last phase of the writing process is called presenting. In this phase students hand in or present their final draft after editing the first draft. In the CAPS, the only concepts identified for *Presenting* were publishing, sustained written text, presenting, and final draft. The graph below shows the average ratings of teachers' perceived preparedness to teach the presenting phase of the writing process.

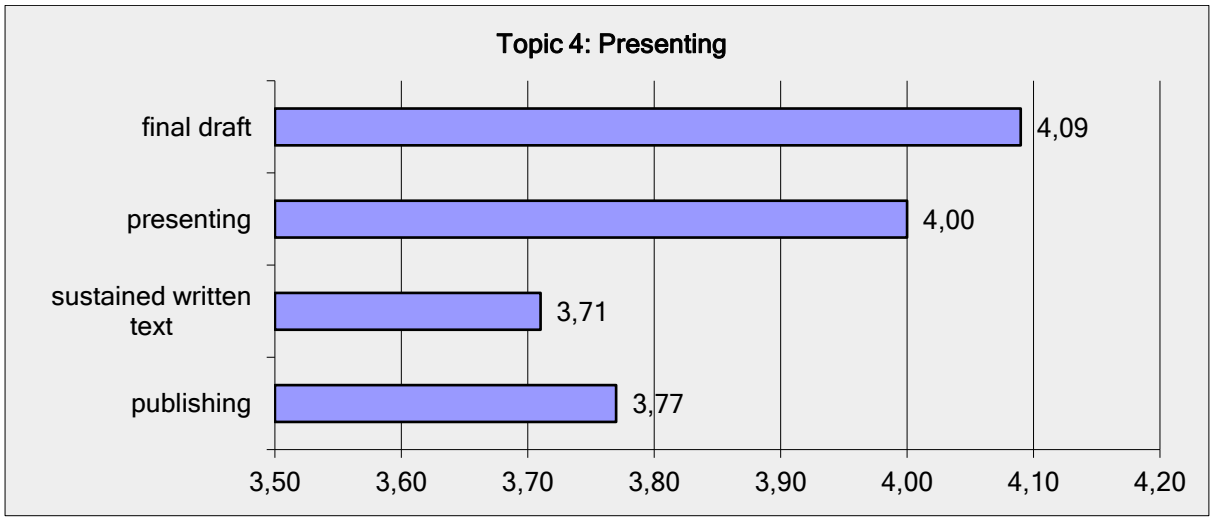


Figure 4.5: Teachers' perceived preparedness for teaching the presenting phase of the writing process

The data, as seen in Addendum H, shows that many teachers feel very confident (84.85%) about teaching the final draft of the writing task. The final draft is the edited and neat version of the task and is considered the version to present to the teacher for final assessment. It should be error-free as far as possible and teachers evidently feel well-prepared for assisting students with this. It is interesting to note that 84.85% of teachers felt very confident to assist students with the final draft, but 80.30% of teachers felt confident to teach 'revision' and only 74.24% felt confident to teach 'editing', as pointed out in the previous section. A final draft to be presented cannot be written without the processes of editing and revision, so it follows that teachers should feel equally prepared to teach all three aspects of writing. It seems that teachers do not understand the relationship between the phases of the writing process; that they are actually interdependent and that one phase cannot be favoured or neglected without it having a direct influence on the others.

There is a 10.61% difference between publishing and presenting in teachers' indicated level of confidence. This could be an indication of teachers being unfamiliar with the terminology used in CAPS. With 84.85% of teachers having indicated feeling confident to teach the final

draft (that is to be “published” or “presented” as the final product for evaluation) it is interesting that 21.21% did not feel confident to teach presenting and 31.82% to teach publishing.

It is interesting to compare the average confidence level for the different phases of the writing process: 77.96% of the participating teachers felt confident teaching *Planning activities for extensive writing*, 73.52% for *Drafting and Structuring*, 71.69% for *Revision and Editing*, and 75% for *Presenting.* Refining and improving the written task by teaching drafting, structuring, revision and editing are clearly indicated as areas where teachers feel less confident. Detecting reasons for this suggests a line of inquiry for another more in-depth study.

4.5 Question 4

The next section of the questionnaire required that teachers only indicate which of all the text types listed in the CAPS for teaching English FAL in the intermediate phase they felt completely confident to teach. A total of 29 different text types to be taught within a period of one year are prescribed in the CAPS. The results are presented in the following graph (Figure 4.6).

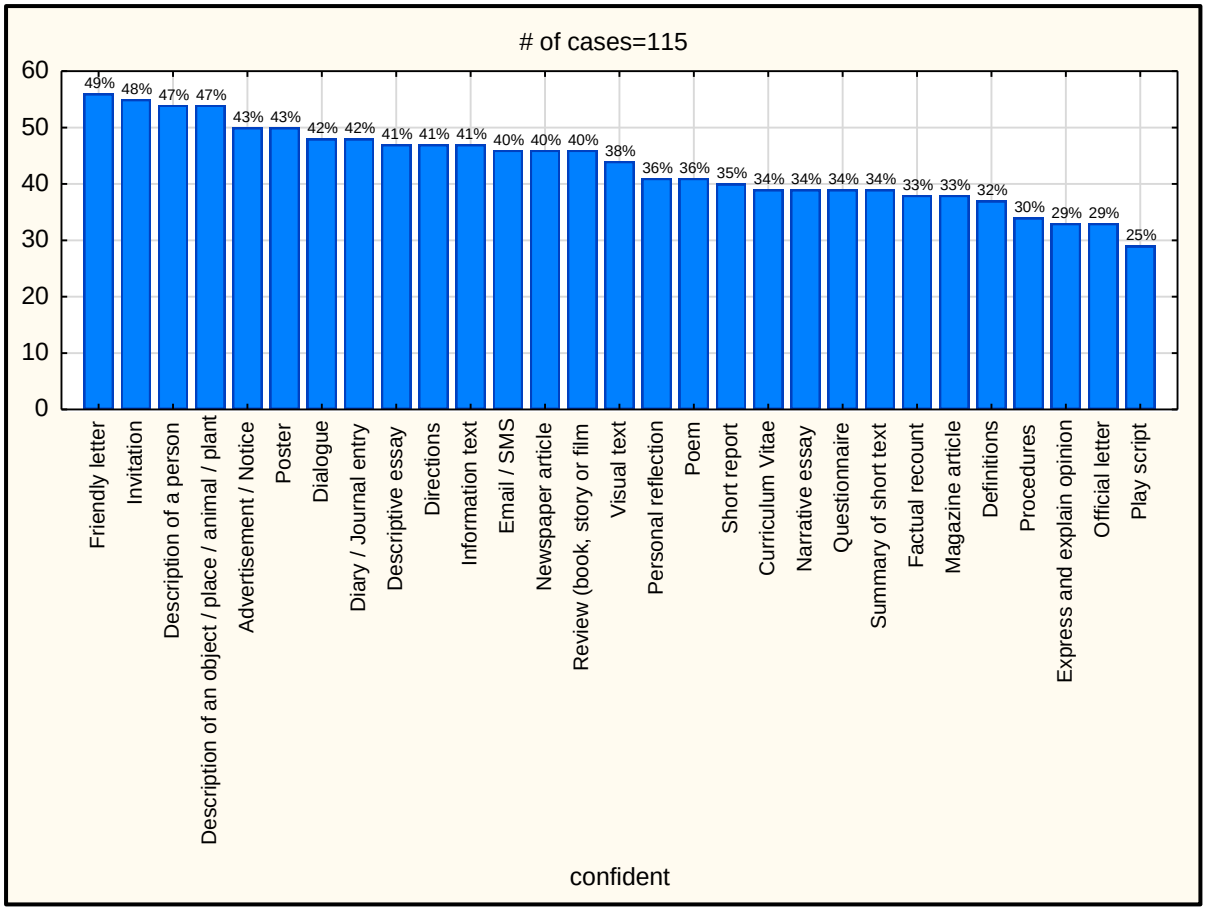


Figure 4.6: Text types in the CAPS for teaching English FAL in the intermediate phase that teachers felt completely confident to teach

The question required that teachers indicate only those genres they felt 100% confident to teach; if a specific genre was not ticked, the assumption was that the teacher did not feel 100% confident to teach that particular genre. A total of 62 teachers out of 115 completed this question and statistical analysis assumed that those who did not complete the section possibly did not feel 100% confident to teach any of the genres. Addendum I shows the exact data gathered from this question. The first observation may be the most worrisome one: there is not a single genre for which teachers in total perceived their preparedness at a more than 50% confidence level. It is understandable that such a low percentile of teachers (25%) would feel completely confident to teach writing a script for a play because this genre is drama specific and not all people come from a drama background or are frequently involved with writing scripts. However, the genres about which teachers should be confident would be genres that pertain to the everyday life of most adults, such as transactional texts, yet the percentage of teachers who actually felt confident about genres pertaining to transactional texts was not as high as could be expected. These included writing an official letter (29%); expressing and explaining your own opinion (29%); writing procedures (30%); and definitions (30%). This

could indicate that the teachers both lacked required knowledge and did not know how to use these genres themselves, or that there was a lack of PCK in their own teaching practice, indicating that they did not know how to make these genres comprehensible to the students. Furthermore, fewer than two thirds of the participants felt confident about developing important text types such as a factual recount (33%), curriculum vitae (34%), a questionnaire (34%), a summary of a short text (34%), a short report (35%), and a personal reflection (36%). An interesting observation is that 90.32% of teachers felt confident to teach the writing of a friendly letter, compared to 53.23% who felt confident to teach an official letter. Additionally, 87.10% of teachers felt confident to teach a description of person, object, place, animal or plant but only 74.19% feel confident to teach writing a descriptive essay. The texts teachers felt most confident to teach involved less formal texts of daily life. These included the friendly letter (90.32%), an invitation (88.71%), a poster (80.65%), an advertisement or notice (79.03%), directions (77.42%), a diary or journal entry (77.42%) and a dialogue (77.42%) – all above a 75 percentile. Conversely, the lower percentiles seemed to focus more on formal or official texts that are used more frequently in our professional lives. These include expressing and explaining opinion (53.23%), an official letter (53.23%), procedures (54.84%), definitions (58.06%) and a factual recount (61.29%). There is a tendency among teachers to feel less confident to teach texts that are important to professionals on a daily basis. The reasons for this phenomenon are not within the scope of this study but indicate the need for further inquiry in a future study.

Statistical correlations were also undertaken and they measured whether years of experience had an effect on teachers' perceived preparedness for certain text types, especially concerning the lowest percentage of perceived preparedness for writing genres, the official letter (34%). The results (see Figure 4.7) show that years of experience had no significant influence on the teachers' confidence for these text types – the Null-hypothesis, assuming that there is a correlation does between years of experience and confidence about text types, was larger than 0.05 and therefore was rejected for this text type. This means that the lack of correlation between years of experience and confidence to teach a particular text type was significant at > 0.05. What could be happening is that teachers avoid teaching this, and similar text types, because of their lack of confidence. This would result in teachers not building confidence in teaching these genres, which calls for further training and development of teachers' skills for the relevant types of text.

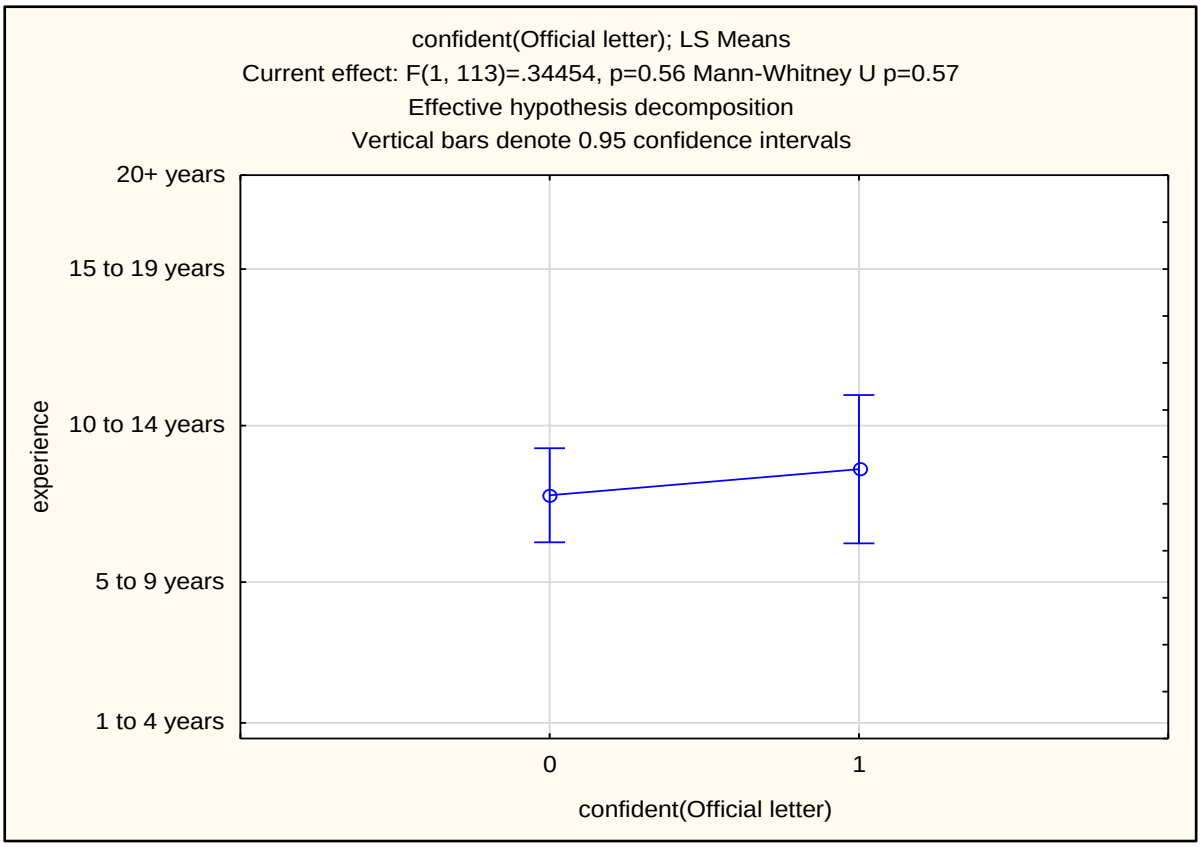


Figure 4.7: Effect of years of experience on teachers' perceived preparedness for certain types of text

The last two questions of the questionnaire were aimed at producing qualitative data so that triangulation of findings could be explored.

4.6 Question 5

For this question, teachers firstly had to indicate whether they understood all the demands of the CAPS curriculum for English FAL completely and felt 100% prepared to teach all the concepts effectively, or not. Then, they had to justify their choice by means of writing a paragraph. The results are shown in the following graph (Figure 4.8).

6. a) Do you feel well-prepared to teach and develop ALL the concepts demanded by CAPS for extended writing?		
Answer Options	**Response Percentage**	**Response Count**
Yes, I understand everything completely and feel 100% prepared to teach all the concepts effectively.	40.3%	25
No, There are some concepts that I am not completely confident to implement in die writing class.	59.7%	37
	answered question	62
	skipped question	53

Figure 4.8: Preparedness to teach and develop ALL concepts required by the CAPS

Of the 62 participants who completed this section, 40.3% said yes, they felt 100% confident to teach every concept in the CAPS curriculum and 59.7% said no, they did not feel completely confident to teach all the concepts. If these results could be used as an indication of the current state of teachers of English FAL in the province, or even the country, it provides valuable data for planning the way forward. Despite the considerable differences in teachers' perceived preparedness, it is clear that not all teachers feel confident and that in itself is very useful information. If almost 60% of teachers do not feel completely confident to teach the curriculum, serious intervention is needed, especially considering that they are currently teaching the curriculum to students who depend on their knowledge.

Upon choosing 'Yes' or 'No' for the above-mentioned question, the participating teachers were asked to respond further by writing a paragraph motivating their answer. Their responses were sorted into two groups, the positive and negative statements according to their answers, which facilitated the identification of similarities and patterns. Once the responses were divided into positive and negative statements, the statements were reduced into easily locatable segments using the Key-Word-In-Context approach. Glaser and Strauss (2006:102) refer to such segments as "incidents" – the smallest units of information from a text that can stand by themselves. Low-inference descriptive tags (codes) were then assigned to the identified units of information. Once the codes were assigned, they were analysed to discover patterns or categories among the codes. A second "focused" coding phase involved using the "most significant or frequent initial codes to recode the transcripts" (Charmaz, 2006:186), with the purpose of comparing initial codes to ensure that they were grounded in the data. In some cases this meant that codes were grouped to form categories or subcategories.

Each individual response for this particular question was also analysed with respect to whether teachers' years of experience had any influence on their perceived preparedness. An analysis of variation between experience and confidence tested the variation between different groups of people who were in the same situation, based on a specific variable. The variable in this case was years of experience. The constant aspect was that all participants taught the same curriculum, that is, they had been exposed to the same concepts and terminology. The Null-hypothesis assumed that their years of experience had an influence on whether teachers perceived themselves as well-prepared. The results from this analysis are presented in the following graph (Figure 4.9).

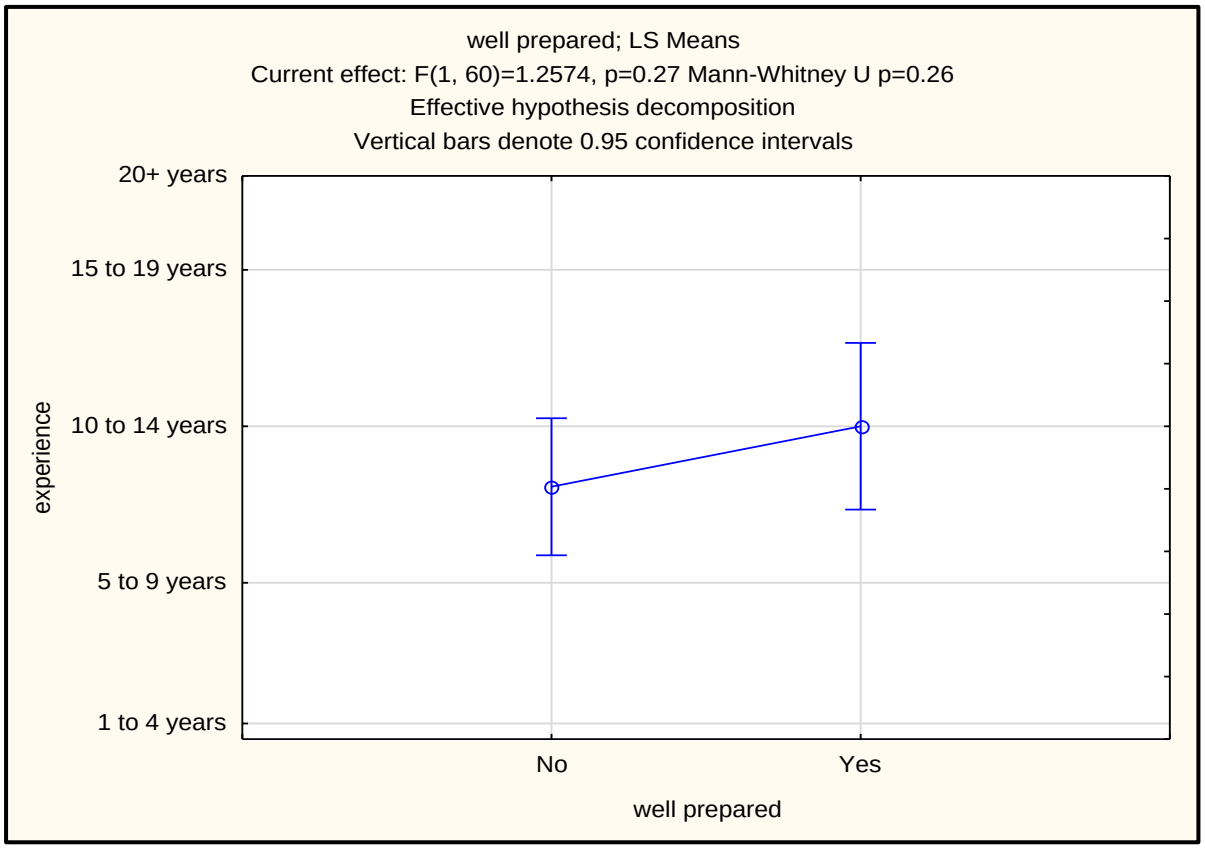


Figure 4.9: Results from the analysis of variation

The statistics show an F-distribution of (1, 60) = 1.2574, p = 0.27. The significance of these values is that it indicates whether the Null-hypothesis is rejected or not. The determining value is that of p, which should be smaller than 0.05 if a Null-hypothesis is to be accepted. In this case the p-value of 0.27 implies that the Null-hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is no strong correlation between years of experience and perceived preparedness. This outcome provides valuable information for this study. If years of experience have no significant effect on teachers' perceived preparedness for the writing curriculum, it means that the new

curriculum is so new and demanding that even experience does not encourage confidence in teachers. It should follow that more experience directly correlates with more confidence, but that does not seem to be the case.

The individual responses can be viewed in Addendum J and K, and are interpreted here.

4.7 Positive feedback

The percentage of participating teachers who felt 100% confident to teach every concept included in the CAPS was reported at 40.3% and the reasons for their confidence were coded in three broad themes. Teachers' responses are quoted verbatim; no attempt was made to edit or revise their words.

4.7.1 Clear guidelines

Some teachers felt that they were 100% confident to teach the CAPS curriculum because, according to them, it provided clear enough guidelines to teach the curriculum effectively. A typical response included under this theme was “CAPS gave me a clear understanding of what is expected of me to teach knowledge and skill of the subject to learners”. Another response was that “the CAPS document is very clear on the different texts we should teach and explore”. I would argue that the CAPS is indeed very clear about what should be taught; it provides clear guidelines with regard to what is expected of the teacher and the student, but this cannot necessarily be seen as evidence for the PCK preparedness necessary to teach the subject. Just because you know what to teach, does not mean you know how or why to teach it. This was clearly observed in a previous question regarding teachers’ preparedness to teach various genres (Question 4). CAPS is “very clear” in the sense that 29 genres of texts should be covered in the writing class, yet total confidence to teach was not indicated for any genre by more than 50% of the teachers.. I agree with the teacher who said that CAPS provides sufficient support to assist with preparation, planning and assessment, but, once again, the support that CAPS provides cannot be seen as evidence for a teachers’ confidence to teach the content, knowledge and skills effectively.

A final comment on guidance is that some teachers felt that they received adequate guidance from their leaders in the school who assisted them in teaching the curriculum effectively: “Lucky to have a great Head of Department who can guide me on the finer points of teaching

the different texts." School leadership is probably one of the key resources that could help teachers become more confident in their teaching. Apart from feeling that they receive sufficient assistance from their team leaders, the CAP Statement also provides clear guidance for being effective in the classroom. This aspect is dealt with in more detail in the section dealing with recommendations in Chapter 5.

4.7.2 Years of experience and age

Teachers, especially those who have taught for fifteen years and more, feel that they have enough experience in teaching English FAL to not be affected by the demands of a new curriculum – they feel that they have mastered the PCK needed to teach writing because of their experience. Examples of such responses are "I have 26 years of experience in Home Language. I make a point to study a new curriculum thoroughly to empower myself" and "English is my home language and I have taught English HL for many years. I believe that this has provided me with the experience to teach English FAL."

They feel that they are confident in making incomprehensible concepts comprehensible to students because they have been teaching English FAL for such a long time and, by implication, have been exposed to numerous curriculum changes in a South African context. According to them, they have a clear understanding of what is expected of them as teachers and have the ability to utilise adequate learning support materials to maximise the learning experience. So the general theme emerging is that they feel their experience and age have granted them the needed PCK to teach writing effectively. This is quite ironic, since the quantitative data says the opposite. The quantitative data shows that years of experience have little influence on the confidence level of teachers. I agree that experience in teaching is invaluable but I would like to argue that it could be very dangerous to assume that years of experience or age equates to good teaching practice. For instance, a teacher who has never acquired the knowledge and skills, and PCK, to teach 'argumentative writing' could be teaching for 20 years and still not be a successful teacher of 'argumentative writing' if he/she does not understand the genre properly or uses the same strategies year after year. Years of experience might be the main source of confidence, as can be seen from these responses, but confidence should not be confused with best teaching practice. A teacher with only five years of experience in teaching 'argumentative writing' could be more valuable than someone with 20 years of experience, if he/she truly possesses the PCK needed for successful teaching of the genre.

4.7.3 Adequate professional development

The last theme observed in many responses is the matter of professional development. This group felt that they had received sufficient training to enable them to feel confident about teaching all the concepts. Their responses included statements like “I have been trained and still get internal training in school where needed; I have been to a few workshops where the above concepts were quite clearly explained; and, I have also attended all the relevant courses/ workshops, etc. to teach CAPS properly. I feel confident that I am doing well.” This was particularly interesting as it was apparent in the responses from the group who felt that they were not confident about receiving adequate training and support from authorities. The contrast between these responses could indicate that different groups receive different training sessions or different quality training, but that should not be the case. All training staff acting on behalf of the Department of Basic Education should receive similar training, both in content and in quality. This matter is discussed again in Chapter 5.

4.8 Negative feedback

The majority of respondents (59.7%) felt that they were not confident to teach some concepts in the CAPS for English FAL. Following the results of the quantitative data, it makes sense that there are more negative than positive responses. The full transcripts are included as Addendum H. Teachers' responses are quoted verbatim; no attempt was made to edit or revise their words. The following themes emerged:

4.8.1 Lack of confidence

While some teachers in the “confident” group felt that they could adapt to the CAPS curriculum because of sufficient experience, many teachers in the “not confident” group felt the opposite; for them the previous curriculum, especially Curriculum 2005, caused lots of confusion for students and teachers – “Previously all of us (teachers) were confused by "Curriculum 2005". We had to use resources which we felt like using, creating confusing learners.” One teacher added to this theme by stating that “learners migrate to other provinces and was lost and standard of teaching differed.” The reason for their particular state of uncertainty is therefore seen to be due to the many changes in curricula and not having adequate experience in the new curriculum. In response to this point, the CAPS has been effective as the primary

curriculum in South African public schools since 2012 and teachers should not still feel “new” to a curriculum that has been in use for five years.

In respect of text types, there are that some teachers remarked that they were not confident teaching argumentative writing and the formal letter, specifically (see Question 4). This correlates with the results from the previous question that indicate a need for professional development of transactional text types. This result also aligns with the section about teachers’ perceived preparedness for different genres (see Addendum F), with reference to not feeling confident about their ability to teach ‘express and explain an opinion’.

4.8.2 Lack of professional development

In contradiction to the previous group that stated they have received enough training to be successful, many teachers in this group reiterated that they were not receiving adequate professional development and training; they felt that they received little to no guidance in managing the curriculum in their schools. Statements such as “We need to use the CAPS document by ourselves without clear guidance and proper training” show that all the participating teachers did not feel the same about the training that had (or had not) received. Some teachers also voiced their disapproval of the quality of the workshops they had attended, stating “it is usually a waste of time as people presenting rushes through different concepts.” Another teacher said something similar: “Never had any workshops or seminars on them [the concepts]. Had to pick up on them myself.” Another teacher also contradicted the first group that emphasised how “clear” the CAPS curriculum is, by explaining

> I am not always sure how much detail and depth is required when teaching these texts. So I often question whether I am teaching it correctly. Nowhere can I find a clear indication what the differences should be between teaching poetry in gr. 4 compared to gr. 5, gr. 6 and gr.7. My years of teaching tells me that I can't teach poetry to gr. 4 on the same level of depth as I would to gr. 6. So this is my dilemma, how much detail in required? Our subject advisors can't answer the question either. This is what causes me to doubt my teaching.

This teacher clearly had strong critique to offer about the quality of guidelines in the CAPS curriculum. According to this teacher, the CAPS prescriptions pertaining to the content and skills to be taught per grade level are not clear enough and she/he consequently often felt

confused. It is apparent that she/he did not use this opportunity to merely complain aimlessly about teaching, but rather provided examples to support her/his concerns.

In conclusion, I agree with the teacher who said “It would be useful to have workshops or training on teaching writing and literacy.” It would be very useful indeed but it seems that these teachers felt that workshops are too vague to be useful to those teachers who want to improve their ability to teach writing well.

4.8.3 Blaming the learners

Others participating teachers blamed their lack of success with this curriculum on the learners with statements such as “Learner discipline is in dire straits and lack of interest and laziness prevail”. According to them, there exists a state of laziness among modern students. One teacher apparently found it to be a “hellish experience.” The teacher elaborated on this statement and said that “the learners do not like learning English, because they are ashamed of their ability to master the language; and, our children have a small vocabulary, hates reading English, and watching television - American slang - does not help”. Another teacher reiterated the apparent “lack of will” present among modern students:

> They do not care, the parents do not care and some teachers do not care. Nothing phases the kids – if they do not want to do something, you cannot make them do their written work. It does not matter how much you try to get the appropriate text and a theme they can relate to. Not even letting the learners decide on what theme they would like to do, proved helpful. I sound very negative, I am marking English exam papers and are astounded by the lack of will that comes through in the answers!

Although these issues are worth exploring, it is not within the scope of this study and do not influence why teachers should feel a lack of confidence teaching the concepts of the curriculum.

4.8.4 A lack of time

The theme that emerged most frequently as a reason for teachers not feeling confident was that of the number of concepts (and their perceived complexity level) versus the time allocated to teach these thoroughly. One of the respondents put it quite simply by stating that “there is

not enough time to cover all the concepts and no time for revision or feedback". Another teacher offered a similar critique, "Very little time to finish all activities in the prescribed time." Time clearly is a serious consideration when evaluating effective teaching in respect of the demands of the CAPS. These teachers felt that there was not enough time to complete all the work prescribed for writing. Other teachers felt that the time constraint had a negative effect on the quality of their teaching: "CAPS is very demanding and adequate time is not given to thoroughly prepare and teach the writing concept in such a way that learners will grasp the concept and produce one confidently on their own." One teacher said that "Time in classes is a problem as we have too much other subjects and other components in English Home Language to do". She/He felt that not the quality of teaching writing only, but other components of English development such as listening, speaking, reading and viewing are neglected because of the overloaded curriculum.

In response to these statements the following is observed from the current curriculum and school calendar dates: As prescribed for English FAL, 29 text types are to be taught and assessed in a school year consisting of 42 school weeks. Considering the weeks lost in preparations for and writing examinations per term, the number of weeks left over for actual teaching is significantly less than 42. The challenge is that English Language Acquisition does not consist of a writing curriculum only, but is also divided into reading and viewing, listening and speaking, and language structure and conventions. These four strands make up the English FAL curriculum and have to be taught thoroughly in a very limited time. Given limited time, it makes sense that teachers feel overwhelmed and are not confident about teaching and assessing all the prescribed concepts. As a teacher in this phase, I sympathise with these teachers' grievances. From my experience I can attest that there is not sufficient time to teach all the prescribed concepts well. Having to handle seven writing genres in a 10-week term is unreasonable, if you want to do it well. If the other aspects of Language education, which include Listening, Speaking, Reading, Viewing, and Language structures and conventions (all of which need to be developed), are taken into consideration it is impossible to find sufficient time to spend on any genre to ensure quality writing development. The writing process itself takes numerous days. Planning, brainstorming, writing the first draft, editing with the guidance of the teacher, rewriting, revising, and developing a good final draft cannot be rushed if quality education is the aim, and I have had to neglect quality education in order to get through the prescribed curriculum.

4.8.5 English First Additional Language (EFAL) curriculum

The last theme arising from teachers' responses was the issue of the level of the EFAL curriculum. Simply put, teachers observed that the prescribed concepts in CAPS are too difficult for EFAL students to comprehend. Teaching English FAL implies that the students are non-native speakers of English, which leads to teachers noticing a "lack of vocabulary" and "difference in student needs". Exploring these issues is not within the scope of this study, but what it might indicate is that teachers do not feel confident using different teaching methods for the same concept to cater for different student needs in the classroom. These teachers might not have felt confident making complex concepts comprehensible to students, especially when there is a language barrier between teacher and student. What definitely should not happen is for teachers to not feel confident about the concepts themselves, let alone making concepts comprehensible to students in their additional language. Some teachers responded with statements such as "several concepts, especially writing to be taught within the CAPS curriculum, are not easily understood by learners in the English Additional Language classroom". The teacher unfortunately did not elaborate on reasons for his/her observations, although some teachers ascribed the difficulty of the concepts to the students' lack of vocabulary: "Teaching these complex concepts to learners as an additional language poses several constraints, one of which is basic vocabulary, structured tasks, without developing extended vocabulary within the English language."

The following section discusses how the different data sets supported one another in the study.

4.9 Integrating data sets

This study used a mixed-methods approach in using three different methods for gathering data. First, a document analysis aimed at extrapolating the PCK necessary to teach the ESL writing curriculum in the intermediate phase was undertaken. This produced data of a qualitative nature. The next method used was a closed-ended questionnaire aiming to determine teachers' perceived preparedness for the PCK needed in teaching writing. It led to quantifiable data which could be analysed statistically. Lastly, open-ended questions produced qualitative data which could be used to triangulate the results from the quantitative methods.

The next sections aim to show how certain findings in the quantitative data sets supported one another and how the quantitative data, in turn, was supported by the qualitative data to provide triangulation of the data.

4.9.1 Experience vs perceived preparedness

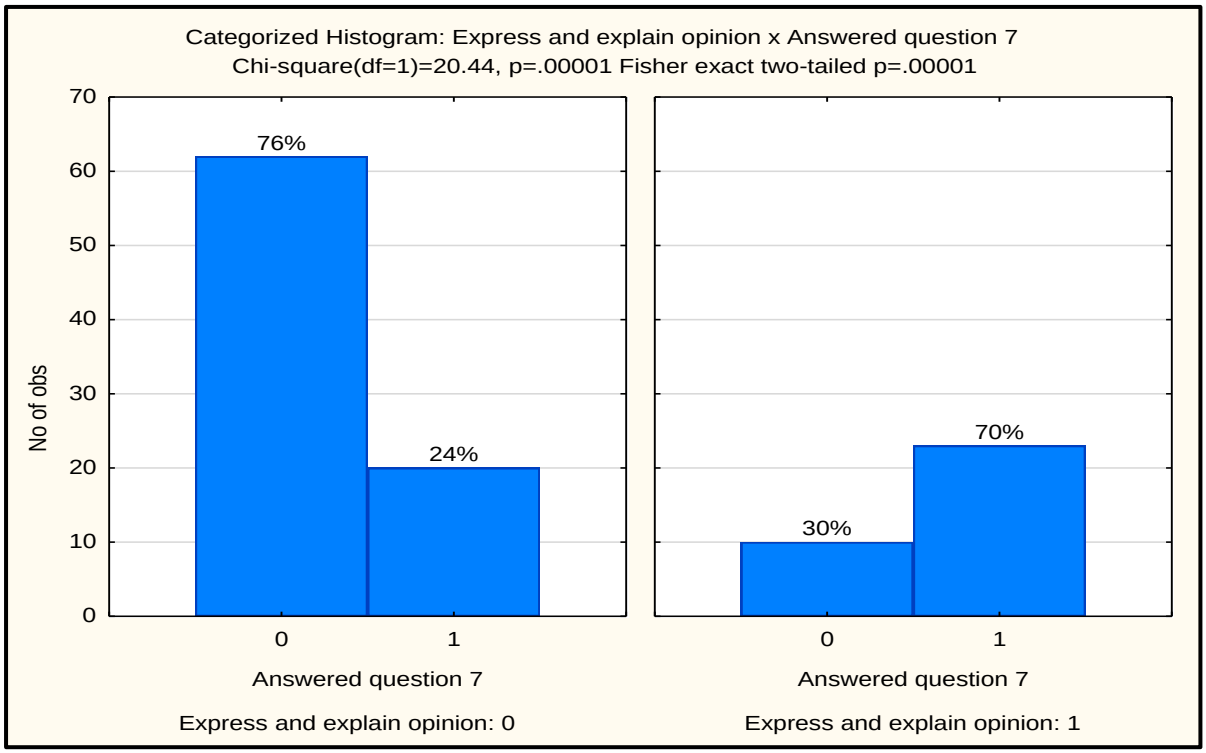
The quantitative data produced interesting results. The sample group that participated in the survey consisted of 115 teachers and was well balanced in terms of years of experience. It would make sense that the more experienced teachers would feel more confident to teach writing, but the data showed the contrary: even though there was a slight tendency for more experienced teachers to feel more confident than less experienced teachers, it was not significant. It should follow that years of teaching writing should hone a teacher's PCK for all the genres, teaching strategies, student needs, the writing process, and terminology, but it did not seem to be the case. The results obtained from teachers with the most experience were similar to those of the less experienced teachers; the five groups presenting teaching experience of 1-4 years, 5-9 years, 10-14 years, 15-19 years, and 20+ years, revealed a similar level lack of confidence in all the PCK needed to teach writing.

The qualitative data produced by those teachers who answered the open-ended question asking for possible reasons for their perceived preparedness, supported the data mentioned in the paragraph above. Positive and negative feedback were gathered from teachers from the various experience groups. If experience had such a significant impact on perceived preparedness, it follows that the more experienced teachers would provide positive feedback about their preparedness for PCK, and the negative comments would come from the less experienced teachers. As revealed by the data (see section 4.6), all the groups despite different levels of experience indicated a similar level of not feeling confident about PCK for writing.

4.9.2 Express and explain opinion

The importance of teaching 'express and explain opinion' has been discussed earlier (see section 4.4.3) as it forms part of transactional writing – writing genres that pertain to the modern adult interacting with other people in the world. The histogram below shows the correlation between teachers who said yes, they felt confident to teach 'express and explain

opinion' in the writing class, and teachers who actually expressed and explained their opinions when prompted to do so.



Express and explain opinion	Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square(df=1)=20.44, p=.00001 Fisher Answered question 7 0	Answered question 7 1	Row Totals
0	62	20	82
Row %	75.61%	24.39%	
1	10	23	33
Row %	30.30%	69.70%	
Totals	72	43	115

Figure 4.10: Correlation between teachers' responses to feeling confident about teaching 'express and explain opinion'

The histogram and table in Figure 4.10 show two sets of data. The data on the left is from of teachers who said no, they did not feel confident teaching 'express and explain opinion' in the writing class as seen in 'Express and explain opinion: 0'. A total of 82 out of 115 teachers did not feel confident to teach express and explain opinion'.

Question 7 of the questionnaire asked the question "How do you think the writing curriculum could be improved to make teaching and learning more effective?" The question provided participating teachers with the opportunity to actually express and explain their own opinion

about the curriculum, seeing that they had first-hand experience teaching it. The link between personal ability and PCK is clear because many teachers did not express and explain their own opinions in Question 7, choosing rather to broach topics that had little to do with the writing curriculum.

The qualitative data support the quantitative data in the sense that 76% of the 82 participants who did not feel confident teaching 'express and explain opinion', also did not express and explain their own opinions in Question 7. It is interesting to note that especially the negative group seemed to complain most about the school, schooling and the curriculum. They did not give reasons for feeling a lack of confidence and it follows that the majority of teachers who did not feel confident to teach students how to express their opinions clearly and effectively, also might not feel confident expressing their own opinions when asked to. Teaching by definition implies that you have mastered the knowledge and skills of the topic yourself in order to make it comprehensible to the students. This group of teachers evidently has not mastered expressing and explaining opinion in writing and it consequently seems that they do not have the ability to do it in their own writing. I accept that it cannot be deduced that they do not feel confident to do so, but merely that they just do not want to – it is just interesting that they also indicated they do not feel confident to teach expressing and explaining opinion in the writing class. I would argue that, even if their reason was that they could have taught it, but just decided not to express their own opinions, 76% of this group did not deem it necessary. I would argue that this is either evidence of their attitude toward the subject or their ability to do so. Teaching students how to express themselves well implies that the teacher had mastered that particular skill.

As could be expected, the contrary is visible in the data as well. Among the participants, 29% said they did feel confident teaching 'express and explain opinion' and 70% of this group also answered Question 7, thus they expressed and explained their own opinions. Clearly they felt confident to express and explain their own opinions because they had mastered the skill and were not reluctant to portray it. It, therefore, makes sense that they would feel confident to teach it to students, as they indicated.

4.9.3 The role of register

Earlier I argued that 'revision' would have a better association with redrafting and editing, but 40% of the participants associated 'redrafting' with 'colloquialisms', 'relevant sources', 'mode' and 'emotive words' (see section 4.3). This means that those teachers did not really

understand terminology related to register, like *colloquialisms* and *emotive words*. The data (in Addendum D) show that the participating teachers did not feel prepared for teaching register in the writing lesson. Concepts they associated with register would have related better with other concepts. Examples of such associations that teachers made included brainstorm (1.2%) and appropriacy (7.1%). It follows that 40.91% of teachers view themselves as not confident to teach awareness and use of register in writing (see Addendum F). Concepts such as colloquialisms and emotive words are more likely to be associated with register; however teachers did not feel confident to teach colloquialisms (40.91%) and emotive words (25.76%). The triangulation of these results confirmed that the teachers did not feel prepared for teaching register. This, in turn, links up with their having felt unprepared to teach more formal, transactional writing (see section 4.4.3).

4.10 Conclusion

The analyses of the data presented in this chapter yielded interesting insights. The document analysis of CAPS provided clear PCK terminology items by which the survey could be designed. The survey was administered to 1024 schools that could have provided this study with a large sample with many opinions and insights. Unfortunately, only 115 individual responses were recorded. The reason for the low response rate could be an indication of the lack of time facing teachers. Even though this survey should have taken no longer than 15 minutes to complete, it could have been seen by teachers as “another” task in their overloaded days which they, consequently, ignored it (or forgot about) as it did not pertain directly to their responsibilities at their schools. A bigger sample size would have made the results more reliable as a bigger teacher population would have been represented.

The most prominent areas in which these teachers’ lack in confidence surfaced seemed to be the teaching of academic (formal) writing, transactional texts and the initial phase of the writing process. Many of the teachers felt very confident developing the final draft of the writing task; on the contrary, many teachers did not feel confident in initiating the process – developing students’ ability to write the first draft, or to design and structure the task according to its formality and purpose. There is clear evidence that the teachers did not feel 100% confident to teach any of the 29 prescribed writing genres well. A significant pattern that emerged was that teachers feel much more confident in teaching informal writing as opposed to transactional texts, which tend to be formal in professional contexts.

The research questions are addressed in detail in the next chapter, but I should like to elucidate the reason for certain correlations. Theoretically, countless correlations could have been shown. For example, I could have determined the correlation between the participants who complained about the lack of time, and those who answered that they did not feel confident teaching poetry. Yet, such a correlation would not have been within the scope of my research questions. Correlations that would provide deeper understanding of the research questions were chosen, for example, the correlation between teachers who did not express confidence teaching “express and explain opinion” and those who actually expressed and explained their opinions when the opportunity arose.

The quantitative data gathered from the survey showed that teachers with more experience did not necessarily feel more confident to meet the PCK demands in the CAPS curriculum for writing. In fact, it showed that teachers from all the different experience levels did not feel confident to teach the curriculum effectively. The qualitative data from the open-ended questions supported the findings of the survey. More teachers provided negative feedback explaining why they did not feel confident than those explaining why they did feel that they could teach 100% of the curriculum demands effectively. The data showed that not a single teacher scored 100% in the multiple choice questions testing their knowledge about some of the terminology, and none of them answered ‘Totally confident’ for all of the questions relating to their perceived preparedness. Therefore, it could be deduced that all of the 115 participants did not feel confident about the PCK required in the writing curriculum to some extent. What this means for the practice of language teaching is discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

When I commenced this study, I had been teaching languages in the intermediate phase for three years. I began to observe that teachers did not feel as enthusiastic and confident about teaching writing as they would be during language or reading lessons. This lack of enthusiasm pervaded most of the writing classes I observed and I heard many negative views referring to "another" writing task, "another" genre: "another" lesson they did not look forward to. I wanted to explore the reasons for this phenomenon and I became interested in the work of Lee Shulman. He concluded that there is a special kind of knowledge, Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), which teachers need to master in order to make complex concepts comprehensible to learners. I wondered if it could be a lack of PCK that causes teachers to feel unenthusiastic about or have a lack of confidence in teaching writing to their students. It was this connection that led me to the task of determining teachers' perceived preparedness for the PCK needed in the writing class. This task constituted the work of this thesis.

This perceived lack of confidence for the PCK needed to teach writing is described and explained in the first chapter of this thesis. It outlines the problem that I observed in daily teaching practice and served as the point of departure for this study. The same chapter also offers a motivation for why this study would be beneficial to the South African teaching community. Consequently, the main research question that emerged as the focus of the study was *How do English FAL teachers in the intermediate phase perceive their preparedness to develop process writing competence (as described in the CAPS) in terms of the required PCK?*

This question was addressed in two sections: first, Chapter 2 provided a literature review of what constitutes PCK and connections were made in respect of what the specific PCK for writing would be and, second, a document analysis was undertaken in order to identify the PCK needed to teach writing with reference to the CAPS document in the intermediate phase.

The literature review in Chapter 2 presents insight on PCK and how it could be related to the teaching of writing. It reviews the original work done by Lee Shulman and also considers various perspectives of scholars who extended research on Shulman's work. It is argued in this chapter that there is specific terminology in the writing curriculum that requires a special kind of knowledge – knowledge for teaching (PCK) – in order to make the students' learning experience successful. For instance, it is not enough just to know the definition of *scaffolding;* the real value lies in the ability to know what *scaffolding* means in the lesson, how students could benefit from *scaffolding*, and what the different strategies are for using *scaffolding* to cater to the different student needs. These kinds of identification led to addressing the

subsidiary research question: *What PCK is needed to teach process writing as prescribed by the CAPS document?*

In Chapter 3, the research design and methodology are presented. An argument for the appropriateness of particular data collection strategies within the mixed-methods approach is offered and how the different methods were to be used is explained. First, a document analysis of the CAPS document in terms of the PCK needed for the writing curriculum in the intermediate phase was conducted. This produced data of a qualitative nature. Second, once the PCK terminology was identified, a closed-ended questionnaire was distributed to English FAL teachers. This aimed to answer the third and final research question: *How do teachers perceive their level of preparedness for the PCK needed for the teaching of process writing in the intermediate phase?* This method produced quantitative data. Lastly, teachers were also asked to answer open-ended questions about their perceived preparedness. The aim of this qualitative data was to triangulate the quantitative data produced by the survey.

The data analysis, presented in Chapter 4, suggests that current teachers of English FAL in the intermediate phase do not feel confident about the vital PCK needed to teach the writing curriculum effectively. Looking at the data, it became evident that teachers:

1. are not confident about teaching PCK terminology, such as register, colloquialisms, and scaffolding;
2. are not confident about teaching genres relevant to adults in the modern age, such as argumentative and formal transactional writings;
3. do not feel completely confident to teach the planning and final draft stage of the writing process;
4. feel the least confident to teach the revision and editing stage of writing;
5. are still unsure of various teaching strategies which could enhance the learning experience of students with different academic needs;
6. are unfamiliar with general terminology used in the CAPS document for writing;
7. do not feel prepared to teach the prescribed genres in the curriculum.

Years of experience had little to no effect on the perceived preparedness of teachers. Many experienced teachers indicated that they were not confident to teach the requirements of CAPS, thus they did not possess the PCK to teach writing effectively. Similarly, many teachers with only a few years of teaching experience felt confident to teach many of the demands of the CAPS and felt that they had the required PCK to teach writing. It would make sense that increased years of experience would result in a feeling of greater preparedness. It clearly does

not, which calls for further inquiry. It is clear that there is a gap between what teachers do know about the teaching of writing and what they should know.

5.1 Limitations of the study

This study was limited to teachers in the Western Cape. Future research could benefit from a country-wide inquiry including teachers from all provinces so that more accurate generalisations could be made about the preparedness of South African teachers. The success of the survey relied on the teachers' ability to access the internet and to be knowledgeable in respect of using email and web links. It may be that a large-scale study would require a pen-and-paper survey to ensure that as many teachers as possible participate in the study. If at all possible, the names of schools should be included in the survey to determine whether the sample is spread over the various types of school.

5.2 Recommendations for further research and practice

The aim of this thesis was to produce empirical generalisations, that is, it merely aimed to determine whether teachers in general feel confident about teaching the writing curriculum or not. No theoretical generalisations can be drawn from the study. Instead, this thesis emphasises the relation between how prepared teachers feel about the teaching of writing and what, according to CAPS, they should be prepared to know. This thesis has succeeded in this regard by proving the hypothesis to be correct: teachers do not perceive themselves as being prepared for the PCK needed to teach writing effectively. This study is deemed to be useful to future research that could explore the reasons for this phenomenon.

Firstly, this study invites future debates concerning why teachers do not feel confident to teach the writing curriculum. Parties implicated by the results of this study are curriculum designers, professional developers of teachers (pre-service and in-service), school and curriculum leadership, and teachers in daily classroom practice. In other words, this study foregrounds attempts to change or improve the quality of pedagogic practice in the writing classroom. A qualitative study, focusing in depth on the underlying reasons for teachers' convictions about their preparedness could offer more insight into this phenomenon and could help future improvement of teachers' PCK.

Secondly, this study could also inspire research into the quality of pre-service training at local universities and colleges; for example, a comparison could be made between the curriculum used by universities versus the demands of the CAPS curriculum, or a study could be conducted focusing on the quality of lecturers and support offered by the tertiary institutions in respect of maximum preparation of future teachers of writing.

Thirdly, the findings of the study could lead to research in the field of curriculum design for writing, specifically with regard to developing the best curriculum for teaching practice that would be clear, concise and not too demanding for the teachers as well as the students. It is necessary to be more specific: a focus on academic writing, formal transactional writing and the importance of the planning stage and the revision and editing stage is required.

It is clear that there is a need for professional development of teachers of writing so that learners can receive comprehensive instruction and guidance in the development of their writing that would enable them to be better writers in all aspects. This finding is supported by the current study, namely there is no statistical significant correlation between years of teachers' experience and their confidence levels. The findings have further shown no correlations or difference between the different age groups.

The following recommendations are suggested for future practice.

5.2.1 Curriculum designers

There seems to be a feeling among teachers that they are overwhelmed by the number of written tasks to be covered as prescribed by the CAPS document. According to them, teachers cannot teach writing effectively, because of a lack of time to focus on the individual needs of students. I recommend further investigation in this regard. For learning to be effective, it cannot be rushed. Moreover, a process approach to writing requires time for revision and redrafting, otherwise the process approach just turns into a product approach as teachers skip the processes of planning and revision.

5.2.2 Professional development (pre-service and in-service)

Another recommendation is to offer more resources to aid teachers with their development of the specific PCK needed to teach the curriculum effectively. For instance, merely stating *"use*

a writing frame" does not benefit the teachers or students if no support is offered. Support could be in terms of professional development and training: occasional workshops held by an expert in the field visiting teachers in their own school environment and offering hands-on training could be beneficial to teachers who lack the PCK in a specific area.

It is also recommended that institutions offering pre-service training of teachers become acquainted with the specific PCK needed for teachers in service and prepare students for what is required of an effective teacher of writing. The findings of this study could serve as useful information to build on for tertiary institutions. If universities and colleges could prepare future teachers for the PCK needed to teach writing successfully, it could improve the morale in their writing lessons. The fact that so many teachers do not agree on the quality of training they have received, indicates that there is need for professional development that is of a higher standard in order to raise teachers' perceived preparedness for the PCK needed in this subject.

5.2.3 Classroom practice

It is recommended that teachers acquaint themselves with the implication and application of terminology used in the CAPS document for writing. In other words, it is suggested that teachers should, firstly, determine their personal level of confidence in meeting the demands for writing in the CAPS document, so that they may determine their lack of PCK. Understanding their personal shortcomings, regardless of years of experience, should serve as a useful point of departure for development. Thorough planning and preparation for writing lessons are strongly advocated – every writing lesson cannot and should not be done in the same manner. The development of writing is a process; different students have different needs, different writing genres have different purposes and structures; therefore, it is recommended that each writing lesson should be presented in a unique way and that it should be planned accordingly. Teaching writing with the attitude of "just another written task" will not benefit the students. It is advocated that teachers realise their responsibility for trying their best (acquiring the necessary PCK for writing) to develop students' writing to the best of their ability.

5.3 Conclusion

This study found that teachers do not feel 100% prepared for the demands of the writing curriculum, but my hope is that the findings of this study will not merely be seen as judgement

on the state of current teaching practice or as a prediction for future education; my wish is that it would rather be seen as a beginning, a positive contribution towards the goal of improving the quality of education in South Africa.

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Addenda

Addendum A: Approval letter from the WCED

Directorate: Research

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REFERENCE: 201600310-8653
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Mr Jacques Barnard
PO Box 84
Sinksa Bridge
George
6535

Dear Mr Jacques Barnard

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: GRADE 6 ENGLISH ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PERCEIVED PREPAREDNESS IN TERMS OF PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE FOR WRITING

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **03 April 2016 till 30 September 2016**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

    The Director: Research Services
    Western Cape Education Department
    Private Bag X9114
    CAPE TOWN
    8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 06 April 2016

Addendum B: Key-word-in-context (KWIC) analysis of the CAPS document

Analysing the CAPS English FAL (grade 6) for key words in context (KWIC) in terms of PCK for writing				
#	**References to writing in the CAPS document**	**pp.**	**Number of PCK terminology per reference**	**Identified PCK terminology**
1	Write a summary to help you clarify and recall main ideas.	11	2	summary main ideas
2	Think about and write new questions you have on the topic	11	1	questions
3	Writing is a powerful instrument of communication that allows learners to construct and communicate thoughts and ideas coherently. Frequent writing practice across a variety of contexts, tasks and subjects enables learners to communicate functionally and creatively. Writing which is appropriately scaffolded using writing frames, produces competent, versatile writers who will be able to use their skills to develop and present appropriate written, visual and multi-media texts for a variety of purposes. In the Intermediate Phase, First Additional Language learners will need careful support and guidance to develop the skills for producing sustained written text.	11	9	writing practice contexts tasks communicate functionally and creatively scaffolded writing frames competent, versatile writers written, visual and multi-media texts sustained written text
4	Writing is important because it forces learners to think about grammar and spelling. This encourages learners to process the language, speeds up language acquisition and increases accuracy. Learners will learn to write a range of creative and informational texts, initially using writing frames as support and gradually learning to write particular text types independently. They will also employ the writing process to produce well organised, grammatically correct writing texts.	11	8	grammar spelling creative texts informational texts writing frames text types writing process well organised, grammatically correct writing texts
5	Process approach to writing Writing and designing texts is a process which consists of the following stages: • Pre-writing/planning • Drafting	11	6	Process approach to writing designing texts Pre-writing Planning

	• Revision • Editing/Proofreading • Publishing/presenting			Drafting
				Revision
				Editing
				Proofreading
				Publishing
				Presenting
6	Learners need an opportunity to put this process into practice and they should: • decide on the purpose and audience of a text to be written and/or designed; • brainstorm ideas using, for example mind maps, flow charts or lists; • consult relevant sources, select relevant information and organise ideas; • produce a first draft which takes into account purpose, audience, topic and text structure • read drafts critically and get feedback from others (classmates or the teacher); • edit and proofread the draft; and • produce a neat, legible, edited final version.	12	17	purpose of a text
				audience of a text
				brainstorm ideas
				mind maps
				flow charts
				lists
				relevant sources
				relevant information
				organise ideas
				first draft
				purpose
				audience
				topic
				text structure
				read drafts critically
				edit
				proofread
11	Explaining writer's point of view	16	1	writer's point of view
12	Text types across the phase	24	1	text types
13	The tables below describe the range of text types that learners should be taught to write in Grades 4-6; other texts could also be included where appropriate. Some of these texts are not included in the teaching plan tables. This does not mean that they should not form part of teaching and learning as they are equally important.	24	1	text types
Essays			1	essays
14	**Narrative text/essay:** Written in the first or third person	24	7	Narrative text/essay
				first or third person
				past tense

	Written in the past tense Events described sequentially Connectives that signal time, e.g. Early that morning, later on, once Makes use of dialogue Language used to create an impact on the reader, e.g. adverbs, adjectives, images			Events described sequentially Connectives that signal time dialogue Language used to create an impact on the reader,
16	**Personal (friendly) letter:** Usually informal in style but can vary, e.g. letter of condolence will be more formal Language features will vary according to purpose of message	25	4	Personal (friendly)letter informal in style Language features purpose of message
17	**Official letter:** Usually formal in style Makes use of language conventions, e.g. Dear Sir/ Madam, Yours sincerely Generally concise – brief and to the point	25	4	Official letter formal in style language conventions concise – brief and to the point
18	**Curriculum vitae (CV):** Concise – half a page Headings and bullets Formal and direct in style	25	6	Curriculum vitae (CV) Concise Headings bullets Formal direct in style
19	**Diary/journal:** Usually written in past tense Informal in style The writer is writing for him or herself	25	4	Diary/journal past tense Informal in style writing for him or herself
20	**E-mail / sms:** Speech-like communication	26	2	E-mail / sms Speech-like communication
21	**Invitation:** Can be formal or informal in style Generally concise – brief and to the point Makes use of conventional phrases, e.g. I would like to invite you … Response is polite, e.g. Thank you so much for inviting me but I'm afraid I won't be able to attend.	26	6	Invitation formal in style informal in style concise – brief and to the point conventional phrases Response is polite
22	**Giving directions:**	26	3	Giving directions the imperative form

	Use mostly the imperative form Use concise and clear sentences			concise and clear sentences
23	**Procedures (e.g. instructions, directions, and rules):** Written in the imperative, e.g. Paint a blue background … In chronological order, e.g. First … next … Use of numbers and bullet points to signal order Focus on generalised human agents rather than named individuals Expressions of cause and effect	27	7	Procedures the imperative chronological order numbers and bullet points to signal order generalised human agents named individuals Expressions of cause and effect
24	**Advertisement/posters/notices:** Figurative language and poetic devices used to create impact and make the language memorable, e.g. metaphor, simile, alliteration, repetition, rhyme, rhythm	27	5	Advertisement/posters/notices Figurative language poetic devices create impact make the language memorable
Literary and media texts			1	Literary and media texts
25	**Personal recount:** Usually written in the past tense Told in first or third person Time connectives are used, e.g. First, then, next, afterwards, just before that, at last, meanwhile Tends to focus on individual or group participants Can be informal in style	28	6	Personal recount past tense first or third person Time connectives individual or group participants informal in style
26	**Dialogue:** When the dialogue involves family or close friends the casual style is used. Well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement are used When the conversation involves strangers the consultative style is used more elaborate politeness procedures are added to the well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement	28	6	Dialogue casual style Well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement consultative style elaborate politeness procedures well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement
27	**Review (e.g. story, book or film review):** To summarise, analyse and respond to literary texts or performances	28	6	Review summarise analyse respond

				literary texts
				performances
28	**Newspaper article/ factual recounts:** To inform, educate, enlighten and entertain the public Clear and concise language written in 3rd person. Can use active or passive voice, depending on the focus and which is more engaging for the reader. Should include quotes, comments, opinions, statements and observations from people involved or experts on the topic.	28	9	Newspaper article/ factual recounts inform educate enlighten entertain Clear and concise language third person active or passive voice focus
29	**Magazine article:** Quotes from people; direct quotes Longer paragraphs Descriptive writing May use a mixture of formal and informal language including everyday expressions and colloquialisms Rhetorical questions Emotive words Use of imagery and description	28	12	Magazine article Quotes from people; direct quotes Longer paragraphs Descriptive writing formal language informal language everyday expressions colloquialisms Rhetorical questions Emotive words imagery description
	Term 1			
30	**Week 1 & 2** **Writes a simple story** • Uses a frame only if necessary • Uses a mind map or flowchart to plan • Selects appropriate topic and content • Writes an appropriate opening sentence • Uses connecting words • Writes an appropriate ending • Uses appropriate grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation	71	15	Simple story frame mind map flow chart appropriate topic and content appropriate opening sentence connecting words appropriate ending

	Uses the writing process • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.			appropriate grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation writing process brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
31	**Week 3 & 4** **Writes a simple factual recount** • Uses a frame if necessary • Selects appropriate information • Organises main idea and supporting details • Uses connecting words, pronouns appropriately **Writes a simple personal letter** • Uses a frame • Selects appropriate content • Directs letter at appropriate person for the purpose • Edits own writing by correcting grammar, punctuation and spelling errors **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	72	12	factual recount frame appropriate information personal letter frame appropriate content appropriate person for the purpose brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
32	**Week 5 & 6** **Writes for personal reflection, e.g. a diary using a frame** • Uses the frame correctly • Uses an informal style • Selects appropriate content for the topic • Tells the events in the correct order • Uses connecting words • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling, punctuation and spaces between paragraphs **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	73	6	personal reflection diary frame informal style correct order connecting words

33	**Week 7 & 8** **Writes a description of a simple process** • Information given in the description makes sense • Uses connecting words • Writes in the correct sequence • Uses formal language • Uses vocabulary from other subjects **Designs, draws and completes visual text, e.g. charts/tables/diagrams/ mind maps/ maps/pictures/graphs/plans** • Adds correct labels • Includes relevant information • Uses key words **Writes simple definitions using a frame** • Prewriting: studies different definitions • Selects appropriate items to define • Uses concrete, relevant examples • Uses vocabulary relating to other subjects • Writes concisely **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning.	74	11	process connecting words correct sequence formal language visual texts charts/tables/diagrams/mind maps/ maps/pictures/graphs/plans correct labels relevant information key words pre-writing writes concisely
34	**Week 9 & 10** **Writes a description of a person** • Selects appropriate content • Focuses on physical description • Writes creatively, using adjectives and adverbs • Edits own writing, correcting spelling errors **Writes a description of an object/animal/plant/place** • Selects appropriate content • Focuses on physical description • Writes creatively, using adjectives and adverbs • Edits own writing, correcting spelling errors **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc. **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises	75	8	description of a person appropriate content writes creatively brainstorms first draft revises edits

	• Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft			final draft
	Term 2			
35	**Week 1 & 2** **Writes a simple story using a frame** • Uses story structure as a frame • Writes an appropriate opening sentence • Uses connecting words • Uses some adjectives • Writes an appropriate ending • Stays on the topic • Links sentences into a coherent paragraph using pronouns, connecting words and correct punctuation • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling and punctuation • Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meanings of words **Writes a paragraph to express and explain an opinion** • Writes 2 to 3 sentences • Selects relevant information • Gives own personal opinion • Explains sensibly **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc. **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft	76	15	story structure appropriate opening sentence connecting words appropriate ending topic coherent paragraph express and explain opinion selects relevant information explains sensibly brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
36	**Week 3 & 4** **Writes a description of objects/ animals/plants/places** • Includes relevant, specific details • Describes physical appearance • Uses correct determiners • Uses relevant vocabulary • Punctuation is correct • Drafts writing, gets feedback, edits and rewrites **Designs, draws and labels visual text, e.g. charts/tables/ diagrams/mind maps/**	77	15	description describes determiners draft writing get feedback

	maps/pictures/graphs/plans • Uses information from a written or visual text • Includes specific details • Uses key words and phrases • Uses appropriate vocabulary **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc. **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft			edit rewrites designs visual text charts/tables/ diagrams/mind maps/maps/pictures/graphs/plans brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
37	**Week 5 & 6** **Writes a simple personal letter** • Uses a frame • Uses an informal style • Writes at least two paragraphs • Uses new vocabulary and punctuation learnt • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling, punctuation and spaces between paragraphs **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	78	8	personal letter frame informal style brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
38	**Week 7 & 8** **Writes simple definitions**	79	13	definitions relevant information

	• Selects relevant information • Give examples • Writes formally and concisely • Uses vocabulary relating to other subjects **Develops a simple questionnaire** • Writes questions clearly • Leaves space for answers • Uses the question form correctly **Writes a paragraph to express and explain an opinion** • Writes 4 to 5 sentences • Selects relevant information • Gives own personal opinion • Gives a sensible explanation **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.			writes formally and concisely simple questionnaire express and explains opinion relevant information process brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
39	**Week 9 & 10** **Writes diary entries** • Selects appropriate content for the topic • Uses the appropriate structure as a frame • Tells the events in the correct order • Uses connecting words • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling, punctuation and spaces between paragraphs **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	80	10	diary entries appropriate content appropriate structure as a frame correct order connection words brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
	Term 3			
40		81	10	diary entries

	Week 1 & 2 **Writes diary entries** • Selects appropriate content for the topic • Uses the appropriate structure as a frame • Tells the events in the correct order • Uses connecting words • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling, punctuation and spaces between paragraphs **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.			appropriate content appropriate structure as a frame correct order connection words brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
41	**Week 3 & 4** **Writes information text and completes visuals, e.g. charts/tables/diagrams/ mind maps/maps/pictures/graphs** Text from the textbook or reader/s or Teacher's Resource File (TRF) • Reads selected text • Uses information from the text to draw and label visual text, e.g. tables or charts or graphs • Shows clearly the relationship between different parts of the diagram or other visual text **Transfers text into graphic form, e.g. uses notes of information collected** • Transfers information into graphic form, e.g. a graph or table • Analyses information **Writes a short report on information collected** • Evaluates information and makes judgements, giving reasons for them • Uses an appropriate structure for the report • Organises paragraphs correctly, for example using a topic and supporting sentences	82	8	information text completes visuals charts/tables/diagrams/ mind maps/maps/pictures/graphs tranfers text into graphical form analyses information short report make judgements appropriate structure for reports
42	**Week 5 & 6** **Writes a simple story, using the writing process more independently** • Selects interesting content • Uses the story structure as a frame • Uses a beginning, middle and end • Tells events in appropriate order	83	15	using writing process more independently select interesting content story structure as a frame beginning middle

	• Uses an appropriate tense and coordinates sentences with 'and' and 'but' • Uses a wider range of punctuation, including inverted commas • Uses appropriate spacing for paragraphs **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas using, e.g. mind maps • Writes first draft • Gets feedback on content and use of grammar and vocabulary • Checks spelling • Writes final draft **Writes for fun, e.g. simple four-line poem or rhyming sentences** • Chooses topic • Writes rhyming sentences on topic • Uses one comparison **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.			end appropriate order process brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft writes for fun rhyming sentences
43	**Week 7 & 8** **Writes information text, e.g. texts used in other subjects** • Writes two to three paragraphs • Organises information logically • Uses a topic sentence and supporting sentences • Uses vocabulary relating to other subjects • Uses formal language • Includes specific details • Uses passive voice appropriately **Makes a mind map summary of a short text** • Identifies at least three main points • Organises information neatly • Uses appropriate symbols/diagrams/other relevant graphic text • Shows clearly the relationship between different parts of the diagram or other graphic text • Uses appropriate vocabulary • Checks spelling • Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meanings of words **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas using, e.g. mind maps • Writes first draft • Checks spelling • Writes final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	84	7	information text use appropriate symbols/diagrams/other relevant graphic text brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
44		85	8	short play script

	Week 9 & 10 **Writes a short play script, using a more informal style of writing** • Selects appropriate characters • Develops the conversation and action logically • Uses direct speech • Uses appropriate punctuation, e.g. colon, exclamation and question marks • Uses writing process • Brainstorms ideas using mind maps • Produces first draft • Gets feedback and revises • Proofreads • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft with correct spacing **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.			informal style of writing Develops the conversation and action logically brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
	Term 4			
45	**Week 1 & 2** **Writes a simple story** • Uses story structure as a frame • Uses language imaginatively especially a variety of vocabulary • Links sentences into a coherent paragraph using pronouns, connecting words and correct punctuation • Uses appropriate grammar, spelling and punctuation • Uses correct tense consistently • Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meanings of words **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	86	9	simple story frame use language imaginatively coherent paragraph brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
46	**Week 3 & 4** **Uses information from a visual text, e.g. charts/ tables/diagrams/mind maps/ maps/pictures/ graphs to write a text**	88	4	visual text charts/ tables/diagrams/mind maps/maps/pictures/ graphs to write a text

	· Writes two to three paragraphs · Facts are correct and well organised · Spelling and punctuation are correct **Writes visual information text** • Makes a mind map summary of a short text • Organises advantages and disadvantages into a table **Writes definitions with examples** • Selects appropriate items to define • Uses concrete, relevant examples • Selects appropriate information • Use vocabulary relating to other subjects **Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meanings of words** **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.			visual informational text mind map summary of a short text
47	**Week 5 & 6** **Writes a book review** • Selects appropriate content and structure • Expresses and explains own opinion • Includes title, characters and summary **Writes a personal letter** • Selects appropriate content • Uses a frame only if necessary • Addresses the message correctly • Orders the information logically • Writes own name at the end • Uses an informal style of writing appropriate for the purpose **Uses the writing process** • Brainstorms ideas • Writes a first draft • Revises • Edits • Writes final draft • Presents neat, legible final draft **Uses the dictionary to check spelling and meanings of words** **Records words and their meanings in a personal dictionary** • Writes sentences using the words or explanations to show the meaning, etc.	89	12	book review appropriate content and structure expresses and explains own opinion summary personal letter addresses message correctly informal style of writing appropriate for the purpose brainstorms first draft revises edits final draft
48	**Week 7 & 8** **Writes a simple news report using a frame** • Includes relevant information • Includes a clear main idea	91	16	news report frame clear main idea develops information logically

	• Develops information logically • Uses connecting words and organises paragraphs properly • Uses the correct format • Uses appropriate grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation **Designs a poster** • Includes relevant information • Includes a picture • Uses the correct format • Uses design features such as colour and different sizes or kinds of print (font) • Presents neat, legible, final draft **Uses the writing process** • Writes first draft • Revises • Proofreads • Writes final draft • Presents			organises paragraphs properly correct format design a poster relevant information correct format final draft process first draft revises proofreads final draft presents
49	**Week 9 & 10** **Summative Assessment**	92	1	summative assessment
50	Assessment of written work will focus primarily on the learner's ability to convey meaning, as well as how correctly they have written, for example, correct language structures and use, spelling and punctuation. All assessment should recognise that language learning is a process and that learners will not produce a completely correct piece of work the first time round. Therefore the various stages in the writing process should also be assessed.	93	3	learner's ability to convey meaning language learning is a process stages of writing process
51	**Formal and Informal assessment**	93-94	1	formal and informal assessment
52	Formal assessment provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade and in a particular subject. Examples of formal assessments include written tasks (such as completing a worksheet, writing paragraphs or other types of texts), etc.	95	1	a worksheet, writing paragraphs or other types of texts
53	In formal assessment, use memoranda, rubrics, checklists and rating scales as well as other appropriate assessment tools to observe, assess and record learners' levels of understanding and skill. Choose an assessment tool that is most appropriate for the type of activity. For example, a rubric is more suitable than a memorandum for a creative writing piece.	95	3	memoranda rubrics rating scales
54	In Writing parts of the planning process or the whole process should be assessed at least once per term. The lengths of texts for writing as indicated in Section 3.3 should be adhered to.	97	1	planning process
55	Examinations: - Writing of a short creative text, including appropriate and correct usage of format,	98	2	short creative text

	grammar, punctuation and spelling - Writing of a short transactional (information/media/social) text, including appropriate and correct usage of format, grammar, punctuation and spelling			short transactional text (information/media/social) text,
56	A : One creative writing text Grade 4-6: narrative / descriptive/personal recount (Please note that the number of words for the different Grades are specified under 3.3.2 of this document) B: One text- Longer transactional text Formal & informal letters to the press / Formal letters of application, request, complaint, sympathy, invitation, thanks, congratulations, & business letters / Friendly letters / Magazine articles & columns / Memoranda / Minutes & agendas (asked as a combination)/ Newspaper articles & columns / Obituaries/ Reports (formal & informal) / Reviews / Written formal & informal speeches / Curriculum Vitae / Editorials / Brochures / Written interviews / Dialogues/Factual recounts/ Procedural texts (Please note that the number of words for the different grades are specified under 3.3.2 of this document)	107	5	creative writing text narrative personal account descriptive text transactional text
57	In Languages it means that the moderator will give good comment, among other things, on the levels of questioning in comprehension testing; the frequency of extended writing; the quality of assessment instruments and the developmental opportunities afforded, and the teacher's engagement with learner workbooks and evidence of learner performance.	108-109	1	good comment
58	audience – 1. the intended reader(s), listener(s) or viewer(s) of a particular text; in planning a piece of writing speakers/writers must take into consideration the purpose and audience when choosing an appropriate form of writing	110	2	audience purpose and audience when choosing an appropriate form of writing
59	dramatic structure – 1. the special literary style in which plays are written	112	1	dramatic structure
60	drawing conclusions – using written or visual clues to figure out something that is not directly stated in the reading	112	2	drawing conclusions visual clues to figure out something
61	editing – the process of drafting and redrafting a text, including correcting grammatical usage, punctuation and spelling errors and checking writing for coherence of ideas and cohesion of structure; in media, editing involves the construction, selection and lay-out of texts	112	3	editing drafting redrafting
62	guided writing – involves individuals or small groups of children writing a range of text types after the teacher has provided mini-lessons on aspects of writing such as format, punctuation, grammar or spelling	113	1	guided writing
63	literacy (see also literacies) – the ability to process and use information for a variety of purposes and contexts and to write for different purposes; the ability to decode texts, allowing one to make sense of one's world. The capacity to read and write	114	1	decode texts

64	mode – a method, way or manner in which something is presented; a way of communicating (e.g. the written mode)	115	1	mode
65	mood – atmosphere or emotion in written texts; it shows the feeling or the frame of mind of the characters; it also refers to the atmosphere produced by visual, audio or multi-media texts	115	1	mood
66	multi-media – an integrated range of modes that could include written texts, visual material, sound, video, and so on	115	1	multi-media
67	register – the use of different words, style, grammar, pitch, and tone for different contexts or situations (e.g. official documents are written in a formal register and friendly letters are usually written in an informal register)	115	1	register
68	style – the distinctive and unique manner in which a writer arranges words to achieve particular effects. Style essentially combines the idea to be expressed with the individuality of the author. These arrangements include individual word choices as well as such matters as length and structure of sentences, tone, and use of irony	116	1	style
69	tone – quality and timbre of the voice that conveys the emotional message of a spoken text. In written text, it is achieved through words that convey the attitude of the writer. In film, tone can be created through music or visual effects	116	1	tone
			TOTAL: 369 key words (PCK) identified in all contexts with reference to writing. These include double entries.	

Addendum C: PCK identified in CAPS document and sorted numerically

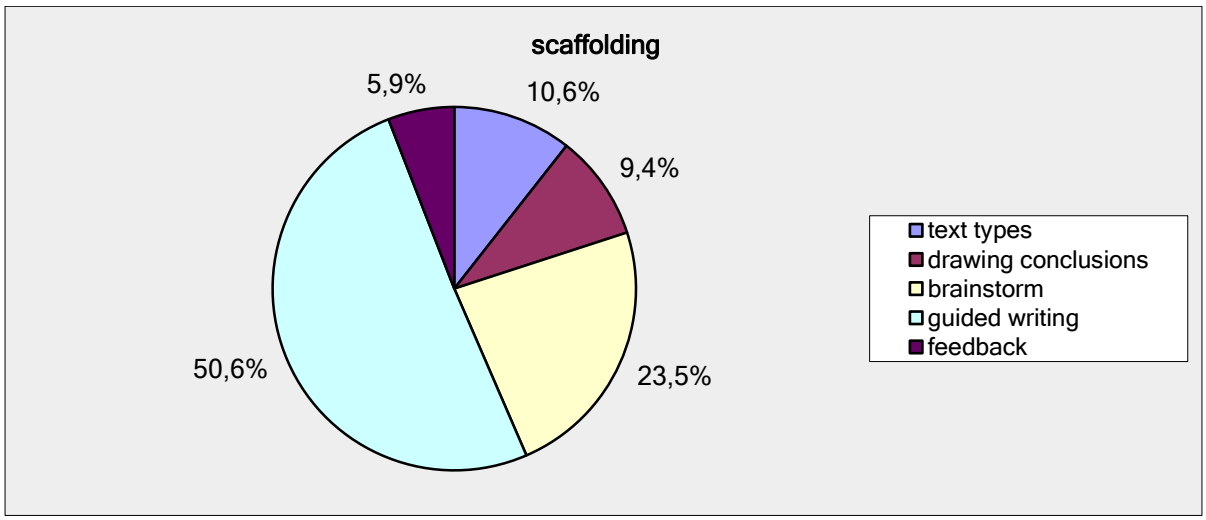
PCK terminology	Number of occurrences in CAPS pertaining to writing
final draft	32
edit	18
revises	16
brainstorm ideas	15
process	10
informal in style	9
frame	7
connecting words	6
formal in style	6
descriptive writing	5
relevant information	5
appropriate content	4
concise and clear sentences	4
diary entries	4
language conventions	4
personal (friendly)letter	4
purpose of a text	4
summarise	4
visual informational text	4
audience of a text	3
charts/tables/ diagrams/mind maps/maps/pictures/graphs/plans	3
correct order	3
drafting	3
expresses and explains own opinion	3
information text	3
mind maps	3
past tense	3
proofreading	3
text types	3
analyse	2
appropriate ending	2
appropriate opening sentence	2
appropriate structure as a frame	2
appropriate topic and content	2
appropriate content	2
coherent paragraph	2
correct format	2
designing texts	2
designs	2
develops information logically	2
dialogue	2
first or third person	2
flow charts	2

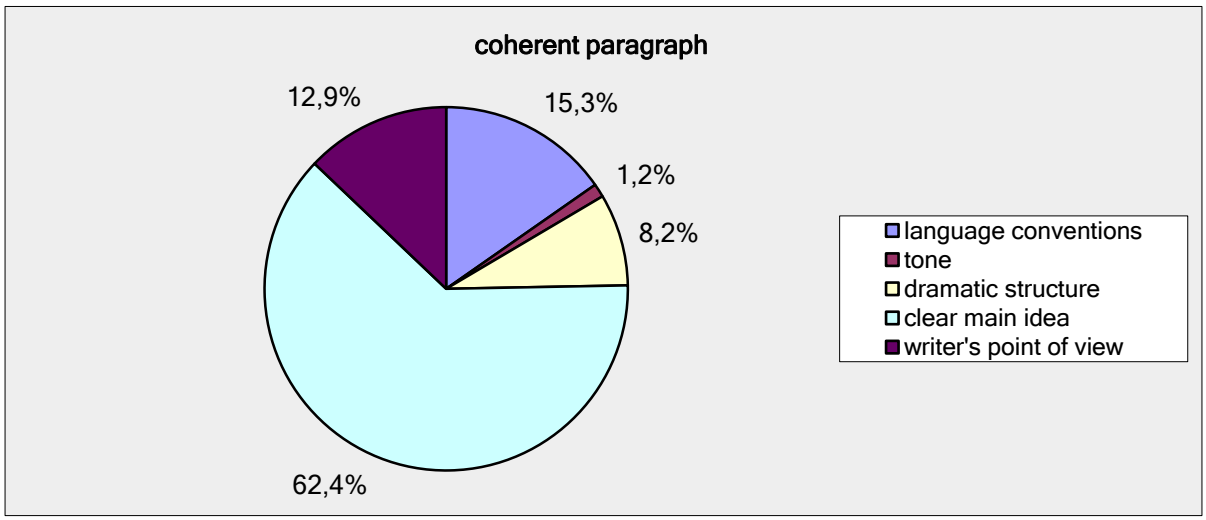
literary texts	2
news report	2
newspaper article/ factual recounts	2
organise ideas	2
planning	2
presenting	2
pre-writing	2
response is polite	2
scaffolded	2
selects relevant information	2
simple story	2
the imperative form	2
topic	2
well-known formulae for requests, questions, orders, suggestions and acknowledgement	2
writing frames	2
active or passive voice	1
addresses message correctly	1
appropriate grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation	1
appropriate information	1
appropriate order	1
appropriate person for the purpose	1
appropriate structure for reports	1
beginning	1
book review	1
bullets	1
casual style	1
chronological order	1
clear main idea	1
colloquialisms	1
communicate functionally and creatively	1
competent, versatile writers	1
completes visuals	1
concise and clear language	1
connectives that signal time	1
consultative style	1
contexts	1
conventional phrases	1
correct labels	1
correct sequence	1
create impact	1
creative texts	1
curriculum vitae (CV)	1
decode texts	1
definitions	1
describe events sequentially	1
design a poster	1
determiners	1
direct in style	1
dramatic structure	1
drawing conclusions	1

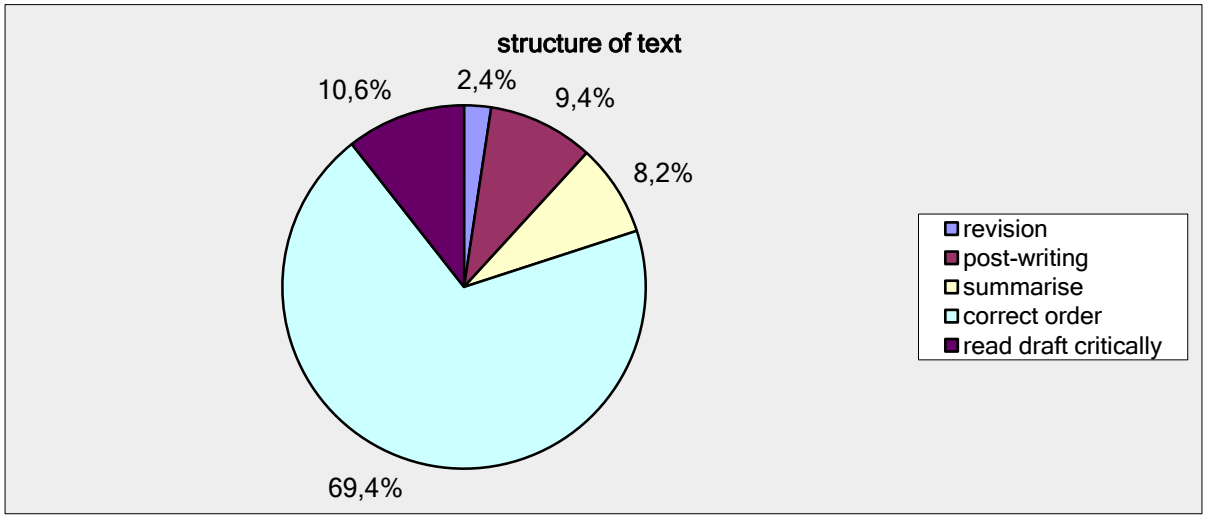
educate	1
elaborate politeness procedures	1
e-mail / sms	1
emotive words	1
end	1
enlighten	1
entertain	1
essays	1
everyday expressions	1
explains sensibly	1
expressions of cause and effect	1
factual recount	1
figurative language	1
focus	1
generalised human agents	1
get feedback	1
giving directions	1
good comment	1
grammar	1
guided writing	1
headings	1
imagery	1
individual or group participants	1
inform	1
invitation	1
key words	1
learner's ability to convey meaning	1
lists	1
longer paragraphs	1
magazine article	1
main ideas	1
make judgements	1
make the language memorable	1
memoranda	1
middle	1
mode	1
mood	1
multi-media	1
named individuals	1
narrative text/essay	1
numbers and bullet points to signal order	1
official letter	1
performances	1
personal recount	1
poetic devices	1
publishing	1
questions	1
quotes from people; direct quotes	1
rating scales	1
read drafts critically	1
redrafting	1

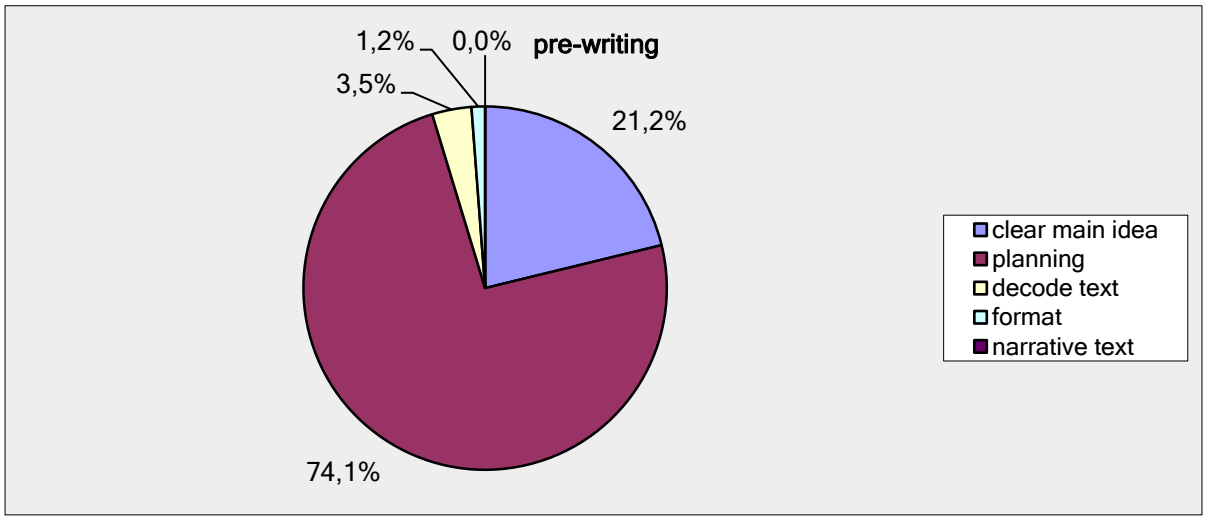
register	1
relevant sources	1
review	1
rewrites	1
rhetorical questions	1
rhyming sentences	1
rubrics	1
short creative text	1
short play script	1
short report	1
short transactional text (information/media/social)	1
simple questionnaire	1
speech-like communication	1
spelling	1
story	1
story structure as a frame	1
structure	1
style	1
summative assessment	1
sustained written text	1
tasks	1
text structure	1
third person	1
Time connectives	1
tone	1
transfers text into graphical form	1
use appropriate symbols/diagrams/other relevant graphic text	1
use language imaginatively	1
visual clues to figure out something	1
well organised, grammatically correct writing texts	1
worksheet, writing paragraphs or other types of texts	1
writer's point of view	1
writes concisely	1
writes creatively	1
writes for fun	1
writes formally	1
writing for him- or herself	1
writing practice	1
written, visual and multi-media texts	1
Number of PCK terminology (without double entries)	**183**

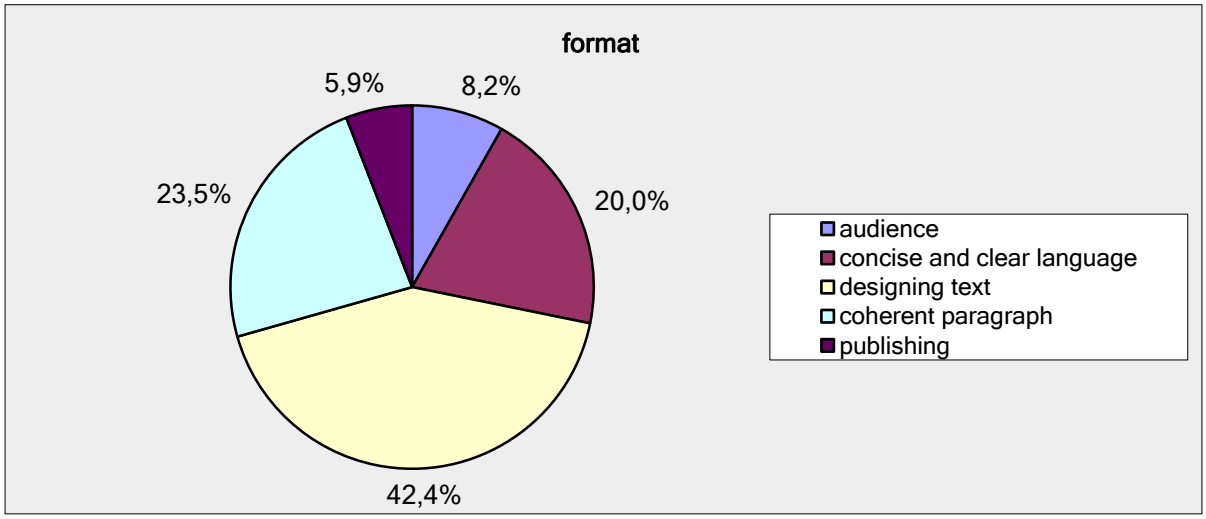
Addendum D: Multiple choice questions testing knowledge of terminology

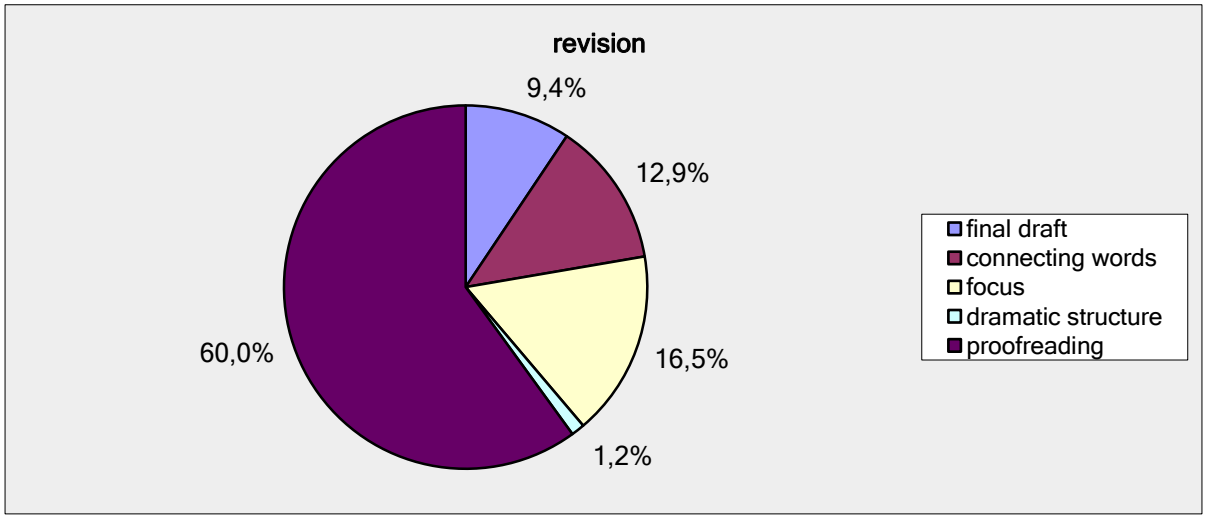


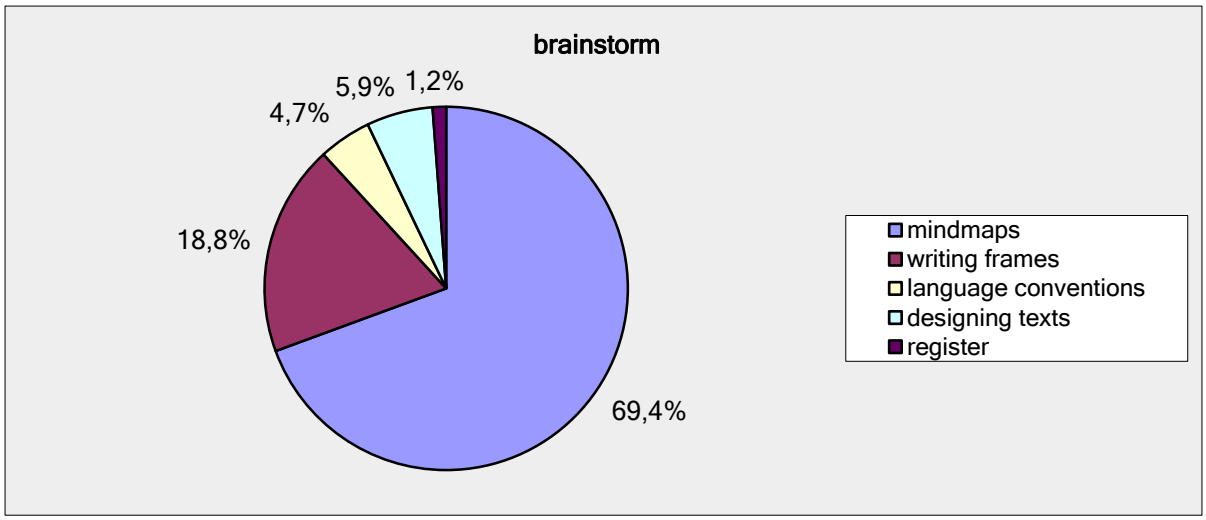




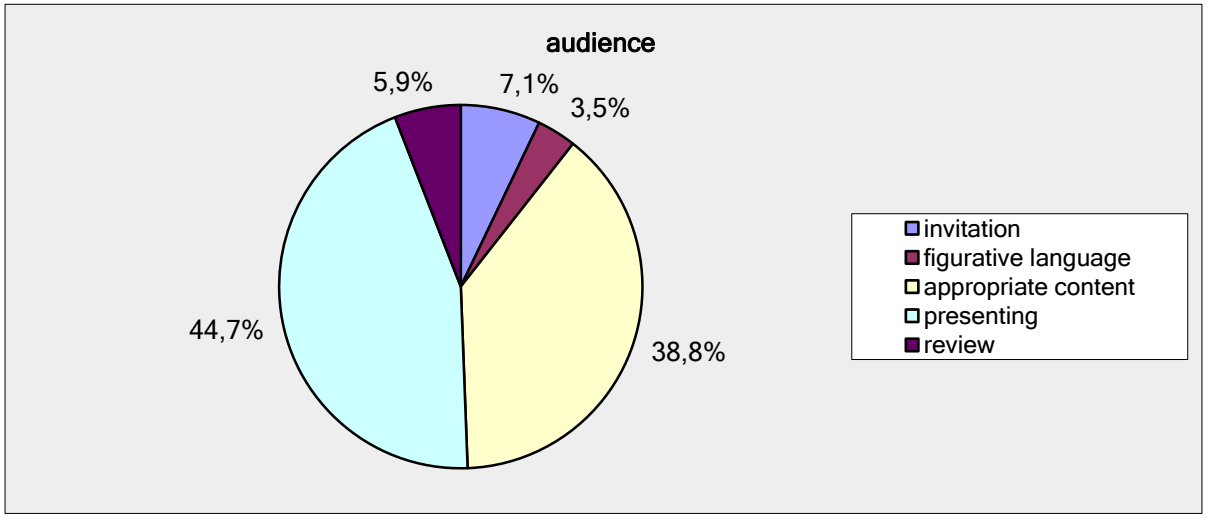


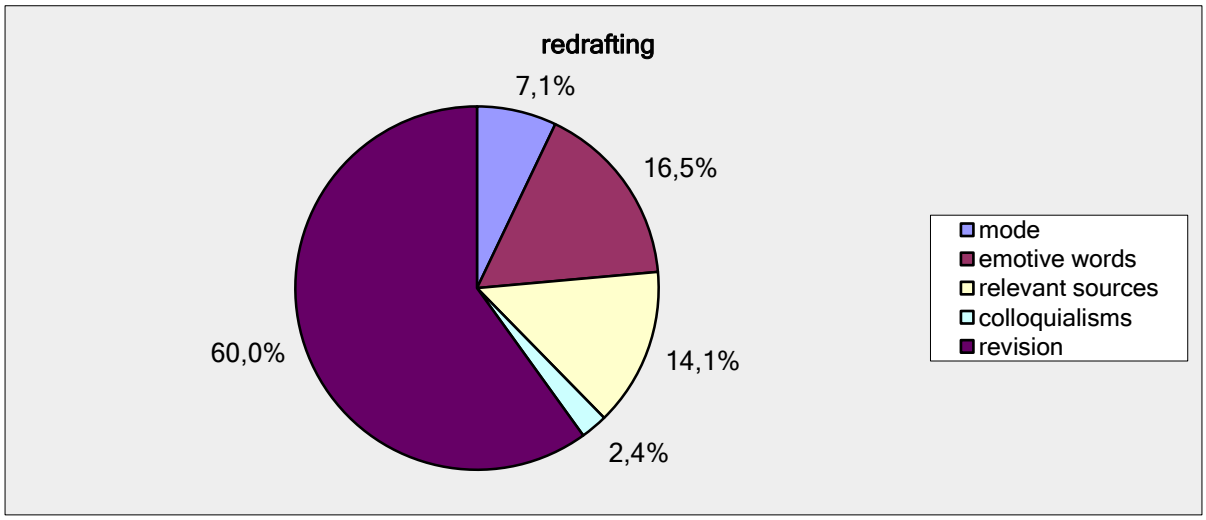


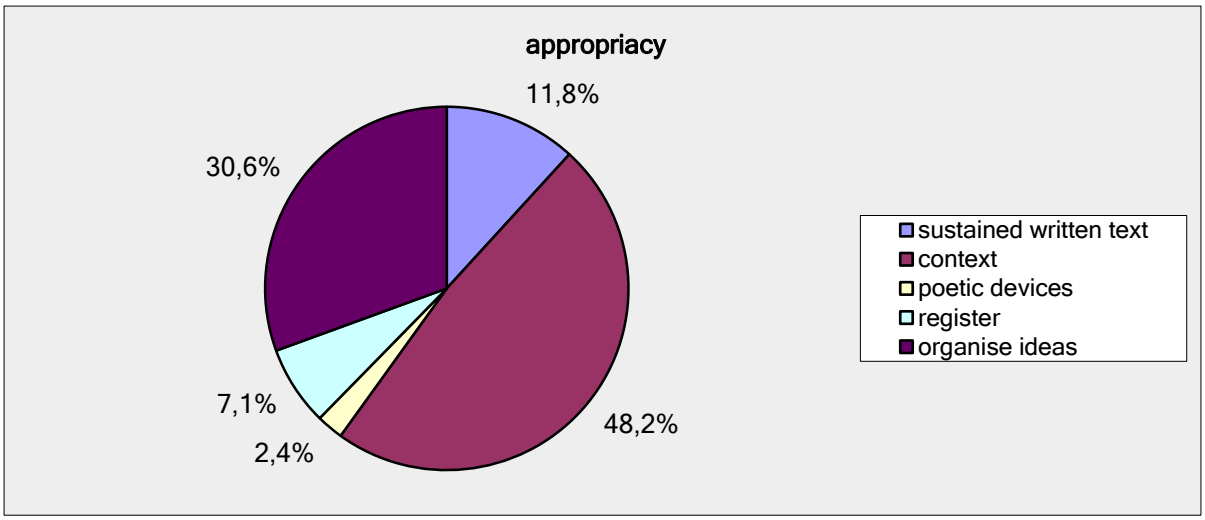




Note: mind maps







Addendum E: Perceived preparedness for planning activities for extensive writing

Topic 1: Planning activities for extensive writing											
Answer Options	Totally NOT confident	Mostly NOT confident	Neutral	NOT Confident + Neutral		Mostly confident	Totally confident	Confident		Rating Average	Response Count
				Number	%			Number	%		
formality in texts	1	3	17	21	31.82	35	10	45	68.18	3.76	66
designing texts	1	8	11	20	30.30	34	12	46	69.70	3.73	66
writing frames	1	4	14	19	28.79	32	15	47	71.21	3.85	66
mode of communication	1	5	12	18	27.27	31	17	48	72.73	3.88	66
flow charts	2	4	10	16	24.24	32	18	50	75.76	3.91	66
pre-writing	2	3	11	16	24.24	31	19	50	75.76	3.94	66
using the relevant sources when writing	0	3	10	13	19.70	41	12	53	80.30	3.94	66
writer's point of view	0	2	9	11	16.67	45	10	55	83.33	3.95	66
third or first person writing	0	4	6	10	15.15	44	12	56	84.85	3.97	66
brainstorm	2	1	6	9	13.64	35	22	57	86.36	4.12	66
mind maps	2	1	4	7	10.61	28	31	59	89.39	4.29	66
AVERAGE					22.04				77.96		
										answered question	66
										skipped question	49

Addendum F: Perceived preparedness to teach drafting and structuring

Topic 2: Drafting and Structuring											
Answer Options	Totally NOT confident	Mostly NOT confident	Neutral	NOT Confident + Neutral		Mostly confident	Totally confident	Confident		Rating Average	Response Count
				Number	%			Number	%		
awareness and use of register	1	8	18	27	40.91	25	14	39	59.09	3.65	66
scaffolding	0	6	18	24	36.36	34	8	42	63.64	3.67	66
implication of context for written task	1	4	18	23	34.85	32	11	43	65.15	3.73	66
tone	0	6	17	23	34.85	28	15	43	65.15	3.79	66
dramatic structure of creative writing	0	8	14	22	33.33	31	13	44	66.67	3.74	66
audience of a text	1	4	16	21	31.82	32	13	45	68.18	3.79	66
guided writing	0	6	15	21	31.82	31	14	45	68.18	3.80	66
style of text	0	5	16	21	31.82	32	13	45	68.18	3.80	66
appropriacy	1	3	15	19	28.79	36	11	47	71.21	3.80	66
focus of written task	1	2	16	19	28.79	30	17	47	71.21	3.91	66
including direct quotes from people	0	4	14	18	27.27	28	20	48	72.73	3.97	66
correct format of different types of writing	0	3	14	17	25.76	35	14	49	74.24	3.91	66
writing a coherent paragraph	2	1	13	16	24.24	30	20	50	75.76	3.98	66
developing information logically	1	3	11	15	22.73	28	23	51	77.27	4.05	66
teaching politeness of response	2	3	10	15	22.73	31	20	51	77.27	3.97	66
purpose of various text types	0	3	12	15	22.73	35	16	51	77.27	3.97	66
organising ideas	0	4	8	12	18.18	32	22	54	81.82	4.09	66
focusing on relevant information	1	2	9	12	18.18	36	18	54	81.82	4.03	66
developing a clear main idea	1	3	7	11	16.67	33	22	55	83.33	4.09	66
correct order of events	0	2	7	9	13.64	26	31	57	86.36	4.30	66
describe events sequentially	0	1	6	7	10.61	30	29	59	89.39	4.32	66
AVERAGE					26.48				73.52		
										answered question	66
										skipped question	49

Addendum G: Perceived preparedness to teach revision and editing

Topic 3: Revision and Editing											
Answer Options	Totally NOT confident	Mostly NOT confident	Neutral	NOT Confident + Neutral		Mostly confident	Totally confident	Confident		Rating Average	Response Count
				Number	%			Number	%		
colloquialisms	0	4	23	27	40.91	29	10	39	59.09	3.68	66
rhetorical questions	0	4	22	26	39.39	28	12	40	60.61	3.73	66
make judgments	1	2	22	25	37.88	32	9	41	62.12	3.70	66
poetic devices	1	4	20	25	37.88	26	15	41	62.12	3.76	66
speech-like communication	0	4	20	24	36.36	27	15	42	63.64	3.80	66
decode text	1	6	16	23	34.85	35	8	43	65.15	3.65	66
figurative language	0	2	19	21	31.82	30	15	45	68.18	3.88	66
language conventions	1	3	17	21	31.82	28	17	45	68.18	3.86	66
expressions of cause and effect	0	4	16	20	30.30	35	11	46	69.70	3.80	66
redrafting	1	3	15	19	28.79	34	13	47	71.21	3.83	66
use of everyday expressions	0	2	16	18	27.27	30	18	48	72.73	3.97	66
drawing conclusions	1	2	14	17	25.76	32	17	49	74.24	3.94	66
editing	0	5	12	17	25.76	26	23	49	74.24	4.02	66
emotive words	0	6	11	17	25.76	28	21	49	74.24	3.97	66
feedback	0	2	14	16	24.24	38	12	50	75.76	3.91	66
rating scales	0	5	11	16	24.24	36	14	50	75.76	3.89	66
read draft critically	0	3	13	16	24.24	33	17	50	75.76	3.97	66
review	0	2	13	15	22.73	36	15	51	77.27	3.97	66
concise and clear language	1	2	10	13	19.70	37	16	53	80.30	3.98	66
revision	0	1	12	13	19.70	36	17	53	80.30	4.05	66
connecting words	1	3	8	12	18.18	34	20	54	81.82	4.05	66
proofreading	0	3	7	10	15.15	35	21	56	84.85	4.12	66
AVERAGE					28.31				71.69		
										answered question	66
										skipped question	49

Addendum H: Perceived preparedness to teach presenting the final draft

Topic 4: Presenting											
Answer Options	Totally NOT confident	Mostly NOT confident	Neutral	NOT Confident + Neutral		Mostly confident	Totally confident	Confident		Rating Average	Response Count
				Number	%			Number	%		
publishing	1	6	14	21	31.82	31	14	45	68.18	3.77	66
sustained written text	1	5	15	21	31.82	36	9	45	68.18	3.71	66
presenting	2	2	10	14	21.21	32	20	52	78.79	4.00	66
final draft	2	0	8	10	15.15	36	20	56	84.85	4.09	66
AVERAGE					25.00				75.00		
										answered question	66
										skipped question	49

Addendum I: Teachers' perceived preparedness for different genres

4. Please tick only the text types that you feel COMPLETELY CONFIDENT to teach.		
Answer Options	**Response Count**	**%**
Play script	29	46.77
Express and explain opinion	33	53.23
Official letter	33	53.23
Procedures	34	54.84
Definitions	36	58.06
Factual recount	38	61.29
Magazine article	38	61.29
Curriculum Vitae	39	62.90
Narrative essay	39	62.90
Questionnaire	39	62.90
Summary of short text	39	62.90
Short report	40	64.52
Personal reflection	41	66.13
Poem	41	66.13
Visual text	44	70.97
Descriptive essay	46	74.19
Email / SMS	46	74.19
Newspaper article	46	74.19
Review (book, story or film)	46	74.19
Information text	47	75.81
Dialogue	48	77.42
Diary / Journal entry	48	77.42
Directions	48	77.42
Advertisement / Notice	49	79.03
Poster	50	80.65
Description of a person	54	87.10
Description of an object / place / animal / plant	54	87.10
Invitation	55	88.71
Friendly letter	56	90.32
answered question	*62*	
skipped question	*53*	

Addendum J: Positive responses to support teachers' perceived preparedness

		Codes identified
Positive	CAPS gave me a ***clear understanding of what is expected*** of me to teach knowledge and skill of the subject to learners.	clear understanding of what is expected
	Good, ***clear guidelines*** help me to prepare, plan and assess.	clear guidelines
	Nowadays, we are on the same track and have ***learning support material*** that is approved by our education department.	learning support material
	My ***HOD*** normally ***assists*** me.	assists
	I have 26 years of ***experience*** in Home Language. I make a point to study a new curriculum thoroughly to empower myself.	experience
	I DID THE ***TRAINING.*** WE HAD A SUPER PRESENTER.	training
	I use my CAPS document as ***guide line*** to know what the children at their level must be able to do.	guideline
	Ek het genoegsame ***ondervinding, kursusse*** in Afrikaans Huistaal bygewoon, asook Engels Eerste Addisionele Taal, pas dit toe in Engels Eerste Addis Taal. Kinders in ons skool/omgewing het egter 'n probleem tov hul tale, hul onmiddelike omgewing is redelik taalarm en dit reflekteer in hul gebruik van tale, des te meer in Addisionele Taal waaraan hul weens hul omstandighede min blootstelling kry.	ondervinding (experience) kursusse (courses - training)
	I have been teaching English for ***more than 30 years***. I have also ***attended all the relevant courses/ workshops***, etc. to teach CAPS properly. I feel confident that I am doing well.	experience training
	The CAPS document is ***very clear*** on the different texts we should teach and explore. Yes	very clear
	I incorporated the VCOp system which improved overall writing	
	Also pre-CAPS ***experience*** have come in handy where most of the above were incorporated on a broader base.	experience
	I have been ***trained*** and still get ***internal training*** in school where needed.	training
	English is my home language and I have ***taught English HL for many years***. I believe that this has provided me with the ***experience*** to teach English FAL.	experience
	Lucky to have a great ***Head of Department who can guide me*** on the finer points of teaching the different texts.	guidance
	Have been to a few ***workshops*** where the above concepts were quite clearly explained.	training

Addendum K: Negative responses to support teachers' perceived preparedness

		Codes identified
Negative	Previously all of us (teachers) were ***confused*** by "Curriculum2005". We had to use resources which we felt like using, creating ***confusing*** learners.	Curriculum2005 confusion
	Learners migrate to other provinces and was lost and ***standard of teaching differed***.	standard of teaching differed
	I have not done all the concepts enough.	not enough experience
	There are ***short argumentative pieces of writing*** that I struggle with	text types argumentative writing
	Simply because there is ***not enough time*** to cover all the concepts and ***no time*** for revision or feedback.	time
	Learner ***discipline*** is in dire straits and ***lack of interest and laziness*** prevail.	discipline lack of interest laziness
	Lack of time for preparation and teaching and consolidation of the work.	time
	CAPS is ***very demanding*** and adequate ***time*** is not given to ***thoroughly prepare and teach the writing concept*** in such a way that learners will grasp the concept and produce one confidently on their own.	very demanding time
	The ***time*** assigned to writing and presenting is ***insufficient*** and CAPS should rather take themes over a month and use that ***time*** to teach a week's worth of language to support the written text, a week for speaking and listening, and for reading and viewing to thoroughly prepare learners for the written text through brainstorming, mind-map planning, drafts, guided writing, scaffolding and editing before publishing, which could take a week or longer to do it well.	time
	We need to use the CAPS document by ourselves ***without clear guidance and proper training***	no guidance training
	I still need more ***experience.***	experience
	There are so ***many different concepts*** in CAPS document that we have to teach our children.	too many concepts
	Time in classes is a problem as we have too much other subjects and other components in English Home Language to do.	time too many other subjects
	When you attend a ***workshop*** it is usually a ***waste of time*** as people presenting rushes through different concepts.	workshops not up to standard
	The ***formal letter*** is a problem.	text types formal letter
	Time constraints within the curriculum does not allow the writing process to be taught to a full extent.	time
	Several ***concepts,*** especially writing, to be taught within the CAPS curriculum, is ***not easily understood by learners*** in the English Additional Language classroom.	concepts too difficult for students
	Teaching these ***complex concepts*** to learners as an additional language poses several constraints, one of which is ***basic vocabulary,*** structured tasks, without developing extended vocabulary within the English language.	concepts too difficult for students lack of vocabulary
	Learners are not able to write well-structured tasks, without developing ***extended vocabulary*** within the English language.	lack of vocabulary
	Having to adapt ***all concepts*** to the appropriate level for Grade 4 learners is at times a struggle.	too many concepts

	Completing a writing piece from start to finish is very ***time consuming*** (one week where nothing but writing takes place.)	time
	Too much content to cover well during 1 year and FAL is on first language level.	too many concepts
	Time to develop some concepts through ***extra training*** provided by the department.	time training
	Very little time to finish all activities in the prescribed time.	time
	The learners are not always the same. There are groups that struggle more than others.	different student needs
	The process then needs to be taught with more steps and help. That is not always easy with the ***time limit*** for CAPS.	time
	It is also not easy ***finding the right approach*** for everyone.	different student needs finding right approach
	Never had any ***workshops or seminars*** on them. Had to pick up on them myself.	training
	Teaching English in the Karoo is can be a hellish experience! The ***learners do not like learning English***, because they are ashamed of their ability to master the language. It is difficult to teach Intermediate learners all the different parts of written work. As a teacher I think that the Department of Education does not take into account the fact that the children are not ready to do some of the written work, as it is ***beyond their grasp and understanding***. They want to build the house from the roof down, instead of starting with the easy and normal written exercise appropriate to their age. Our children have a ***small vocabulary***, hates reading English, and watching television - American slang- does not help. The fun is taken out of teaching and learning. ***DBE workbooks*** have lovely pictures, but is ***not helpful***, as it rushes through the themes and using words not age appropriate for the children in rural communities.	lack of interest complex concepts lack of vocabulary resources not helpful
	I started teaching in 1982 in a rural community for Grade 6 - 12. In the past few years I have seen a steady decline in our learners' ability to master the basics in writing. ***They do not care***, the parents do not care and some teachers do not care. Nothing phases the kids - if they do not want to do something, you cannot make them do their written work. It does not matter how much you try to get the appropriate text and a theme they can relate to. Not even letting the learners decide on what theme they would like to do, proved helpful. I sound very negative, I am marking English exam papers and are astounded by the ***lack of will*** that comes through in the answers!	lack of interest
	As a first year teacher, I ***still have a lot to learn***. Therefore, I know I have much to still focus on and improve on as well.	experience
	There needs to be ***more training*** on Caps for English teachers and more time for executing extended writing.	training time
	Too much content to cover well during 1 year and FAL is on first language level.	too much content
	Time to develop some concepts through ***extra training*** provided by the department.	time extra training
	Very little time to finish all activities in the prescribed time.	time
	There is ***too much work*** and too little ***time*** for casual and experimental writing.	too much content time

	I am not always ***sure how much detail and depth*** is required when teaching these texts. So I often question whether I am teaching it correctly. ***Nowhere can I find a clear indication*** what the differences should be between teaching poetry in gr. 4 compared to gr. 5, gr. 6 and gr.7. My years of teaching tells me that I can't teach poetry to gr. 4 on the same level of depth as I would to gr. 6. So this is my dilemma, how much detail in required? Our subject advisors can't answer the question either. This is what causes me to doubt my teaching.	no clear indication of detail required for teaching different grades
	Communicative skills of relating in the language are not easy for learners who are not taught in their ***mother tongue***. This aspect has a huge influence on the learner's spontaneous and natural involvement. In various aspects/concepts the learner is not able to relate to the suggested topic.	mother tongue education
	There are certain areas that I have ***not had enough exposure and experience*** in teaching - this means that I would have to do extensive research and preparation before doing a lesson on these concepts.	experience
	It would be useful to have ***workshops or training*** on teaching writing and literacy.	training
	There are certain concepts that I have ***not been exposed t***o in order to teach it proficiently. As well as ***not many beneficial workshops*** to help me improve my standard of writing.	experience training
	Teachers teach like we were taught, therefore we only teach a small number of the concepts which we have been exposed to.	experience
	Teachers have ***too many subjects to teach*** and don't have ***time*** to concentrate on making sure that writing gets the effort required.	too many other subjects time
	Teaching any language in your ***2nd language is a challenge.***	mother tongue education
	As a Language teacher, the ***time*** available to teach writing is limited. Teachers tend to focus on the answering of comprehension type texts, summaries as language structures and conventions as well as literature. Because these two facets of English FAL are so taxing on one's ***time,*** Writing gets pushed aside.	time
	Lack of training. Too many concepts.	training too many concepts